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Emotion in online distance language learning:  
learners' appraisal of regret and pride in  
synchronous audiographic conferencing

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### **Declaration**

I declare that this thesis represents my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously submitted to the Open University or to any other institution for a degree, diploma or other qualification.

## **Abstract**

In the last few decades, the study of emotions has been considered essential to our understanding of social and human mental lives, as they mediate between what is personally important and the outer world of people, objects and happenings (Oatley & Jenkins, 1996). Despite assumptions that success and failure in language learning are partly determined by learners' ability to regulate their emotions, there is no research in second language acquisition (SLA) on everyday emotions other than anxiety. Thus, we move away from linguists' broad conception of affect into the more particular understanding of emotion by emotion theorists, as incorporating phenomenological experiences, cognitive appraisal and some form of coping. Appraisal theory claims that emotions are elicited by evaluations of events and situations in relation to a person's goals, needs or concerns (Roseman & Smith, 2001). Roseman's appraisal model proposes seven appraisals of an event that influence emotions: unexpectedness, situational state, motivational state, probability, agency, control potential and problem type (Roseman, 2001).

We administered a questionnaire to a large number of distance language learners, and interviewed a sample of respondents to find out about the emotions they felt when using a synchronous audiographic conferencing tool for oral interaction, and also their appraisal of instances of regret and pride, following Roseman's model. Our analysis revealed that learners overall feel positive emotions more often than negative emotions, and that women report feeling more than men. We found a stable pattern of appraisal for both regret and pride along certain dimensions such as situational state, but varied

particularly concerning agency. Our findings suggest that negative emotions should not be ostracised from the process of language learning, and that language learners need to develop an awareness of the origin of their emotions (positive and negative), including self, others and the context of interaction.

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## Table of contents

<b>CHAPTER 1.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Computer-mediated communication (CMC) and language learning.....	1
1.3 An emotional event in the language classroom .....	2
1.4 Different approaches to the study of emotion.....	3
1.5 Cognitive appraisal and emotion .....	5
1.5.1 Lazarus's theory of discrete emotions.....	7
1.5.2 Roseman's Model of Appraisal in the Emotion System.....	10
1.6 Appraisal and second language acquisition .....	14
1.7 Emotion in second language acquisition.....	15
<b>CHAPTER 2.....</b>	<b>18</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	18
2.2 Affect in SLA: From Krashen's affective filter to individual differences.....	18
2.2.1 Learning style.....	23
2.2.2 Motivation .....	24
2.2.3 Anxiety.....	26
2.2.4 Personality .....	29
2.2.5 Willingness to communicate.....	33
2.2.6 Learning strategies .....	34
2.3 Affect and distance language learning .....	37
2.3.1 Empathy.....	39
2.3.2 Motivation .....	40
2.3.3 Anxiety and self-regulation .....	42
2.4 Affect in CMC .....	48
2.5 The Open University's experience of synchronous audiographic conferencing.....	55
2.5.1 Early research into Lyceum .....	69
2.5.2 Task design for oral interaction via Lyceum .....	74
2.5.3 Learner and tutor impressions revisited .....	77
2.5.4 Interaction and multimodality .....	83
2.5.5 Affect in Lyceum .....	91
<b>CHAPTER 3.....</b>	<b>99</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	99
3.2 Questionnaires .....	100
3.2.1 Why Roseman's questionnaire?: methodological issues of appraisal studies	100
3.2.2 Piloting.....	103
3.2.3 Materials .....	110
3.2.4 Sampling .....	112
3.2.5 Procedure.....	113
3.3 Interviews .....	114



3.3.1 Accessing learners' thoughts and feelings.....	114
3.3.2 Qualitative interviews .....	117
<b>CHAPTER 4.....</b>	<b>124</b>
4.1 Introduction.....	124
4.2 Analysis of questionnaires .....	124
4.2.1 Data screening and cleaning.....	124
4.2.2 Personal characteristics of respondents .....	125
4.2.3 Reliability and validity .....	126
4.2.4 Attendance at tutorials .....	128
4.2.5 Confidence in using Lyceum .....	128
4.2.6 Emotions .....	129
4.2.7 Appraisal of regret and pride .....	135
4.3 Analysis of interviews.....	141
4.3.1 Implementation and coding.....	141
4.3.2 Background questions .....	143
4.3.3 The appraisal pattern of regret.....	144
4.3.4 The appraisal pattern of pride .....	166
<b>CHAPTER 5.....</b>	<b>184</b>
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>198</b>
Appendix 1 Questionnaire.....	216
Appendix 2 Letter of information.....	220
Appendix 3 Informed consent.....	221
Appendix 4 Means per emotion.....	222
Appendix 5 Differences in emotion by gender.....	223
Appendix 6 Correlations .....	224
Appendix 7 Table of appraisal frequencies for regret.....	226
Appendix 8 Table of appraisal frequencies for pride.....	228

## Chapter 1

### Rationale

#### *1.1 Introduction*

In the following pages we seek to present the rationale for this dissertation. First, we briefly introduce our focus on distance language learning and computer-mediated communication. Next, we revise three different approaches to the study of emotion, and explain in detail the emergence of appraisal theory and the contribution its main figures have made to its development, focusing on Roseman's emotion system. We outline how researchers in second language acquisition have studied appraisals as constituents of motivation, and finally we put forward our research questions.

#### *1.2 Computer-mediated communication (CMC) and language learning*

From the mid 1990s, the advent of computer-mediated communication (CMC) has had a significant impact on language learning and teaching. Approximately forty years ago, language learners would sit at their computers and repeat *ad libitum* drill exercises produced by an indefatigable mechanical tutor (Warschauer & Healy, 1998). Nowadays, the multimedia networked computer allows for real time, many-to-many, voice-communication over the internet, thus closely resembling authentic face-to-face conversations (Lamy & Hampel, 2007). For the distance language learner, often isolated from peers and tutor, and lacking opportunities for interaction in the target language (Hurd, 2005b), CMC has had a larger effect: online learning environments not only offer

distance learners a multimodal setting where they can hone their language skills in collaboration with others, but also provide a social space to develop a supportive community of learners and reduce isolation (Shield, 2000). To become electronically literate, however, language learners must pay heed, among other challenges, to the affective demands of CMC (Hampel & Hauck, 2006).

### *1.3 An emotional event in the language classroom*

“There was an incident when I was doing a tutorial, this is I think the first or second lesson, and the tutor gave me this long passage to read and I tried to read it as best I could, but obviously I made mistakes. And then at the end of it she [the tutor] said 'well, that's not bad, let's everybody give him a cheer, girls', and I thought that was unnecessary and I did feel angry then. I would never do that when I was teaching, so that's one of the reasons why I wanted to change tutors.”

The above narrative is taken from an interview with John (not his real name), an English student enrolled in a distance course of Spanish for beginners. For practising oral skills he had chosen the option of attending tutorials using an audiographic conferencing tool which allows synchronous voice communication over the Internet. What caused his anger? Why did he feel angry rather than proud, embarrassed or frustrated?

#### *1.4 Different approaches to the study of emotion*

Nowadays, emotions are considered essential to our understanding of social and human mental lives as they mediate between what is personally important and the outer world of people, objects and happenings (Oatley & Jenkins, 1996). For a long time, however, emotions were dismissed as uncontrollable and involuntary responses, an external force that caused our bodies to sweat, our hearts to thump and mouths go dry. Emotions did not belong to the mind and thus were illegitimate in the explanation of human behaviour. Those psychologists who devoted some attention to the investigation of the arousal and differentiation of discrete emotions followed fundamentally two approaches, physiological and behaviourist.

The James-Lange theory is at the heart of the physiological approach. Still influential in the present, it claims that bodily changes are core to the arousal of emotion and that emotions can be differentiated by scientifically analysing their distinct physiological details. Rage, for example, is characterized by “ebullition in the chest... flushing of the face... dilatation of the nostrils... and an impulse to vigorous action” (James, 1890: 452). Roseman (1984) does not consider physiological accounts of emotion entirely adequate: while it is in itself debatable that to each discrete emotion corresponds a distinct pattern of physical reactions (we shed as many tears in sadness as we do in joy), physiological theorists do not explain what in the first place evokes such bodily upset. What produces a sad face instead of an angry expression? As he observed the likely connection between emotions and events, Roseman indicated that “a physiological approach must be

supplemented by a theory relating bodily reactions to the situations in which they occur” (Roseman, 1984: 14).

Behaviourists were alert to the latter as they asserted that environmental stimuli determined emotion elicitation. For example, a person reacts with fear if danger is signalled, and feels relief once danger abates (Mowrer, 1960). What behaviourists did not offer, however, was a justification of why the same event provokes different emotions in different people, or why one person reacts differently to the same event in two separate moments in time. If your family forgets your birthday, it is possible that you feel sad, but just as plausible to feel angry or not bothered at all. If a colleague disapproves of your work, you may experience regret, shame, guilt or even dislike towards this person. What is clear here is that there exists an interpretation of the event by the individual who reacts emotionally, and that it is this interpretation, not the event itself, which arouses emotion. The onset of cognitive enquiry into the study of emotions is thus validated.

“Emotions may be physiological and behavioural responses to environmental stimuli, but stimuli as they are actively and constructively perceived by an intelligent organism possessing knowledge of the world” (Roseman, 1984: 14-15). In our example at the beginning of this section, John feels angry because he interprets the words of his tutor as mockery: he reads out loud a long passage in a language which, as a beginner, is unfamiliar to him and makes a few mistakes. Yet in his view his tutor fails to acknowledge his effort and invites the other classmates to laugh at him – *‘well, that’s not bad, let’s everybody give him a cheer, girls’*. A teacher of English himself, John’s anger is

fuelled by his experience that in the language classroom mistakes are part of the learning process and learners' endeavours should never be ridiculed. We can speculate that the tutor never intended for him to take umbrage, but the point is irrelevant. The importance lies in the fact that a particular event is interpreted in a particular way and produces a particular emotional response. If John had read praise into his tutor's remarks, he would most certainly have felt proud. If the tutorial had happened later rather than at an early stage during the course, her words could have been met with embarrassment, had he thought they implied criticism. At this moment, though, John felt angry and his anger made perfect sense to him.

### *1.5 Cognitive appraisal and emotion*

There is a consensus among contemporary emotion theorists (Solomon, 2003; Oatley et al., 2006) interested in the relationship between cognition and emotion, that cognition affects the production of emotions. At the influential 1970 Loyola Symposium on Feeling and Emotions, psychologist Richard Lazarus and his collaborators thus outlined the objectives of their research:

“First, what is the nature of the cognitions (or appraisals) which underlie separate emotional reactions (e.g. fear, guilt, grief, joy, etc). Second, what are the determining antecedent conditions of these cognitions?” (Lazarus, Averill & Opton, 1970: 219).

Although Lazarus coined and popularized the term *cognitive appraisal* in his theory of discrete emotions, he did not introduce it. It was Magda Arnold who first emphasized that cognitive factors are the prime elicitors of emotions. The 'founding mother of appraisal theory' (Roseman & Smith, 2001), she started working in the 1940s in pursuit of her interest in the physiological specificity of emotions and in emotional brain processes. By the 1960s she had become a major figure in emotion research, her scientific career spanning decades of change away from behaviourist paradigms. In the two-volume *Emotion and Personality* (1960) she first argued that emotions are caused by appraisals. Her assumptions were to provide the basis for the multilevel appraisal theories which have led the field in the last fifteen years (Shields & Kappas, 2006).

Arnold's original proposal was that an emotion relates self to an object (Oatley et al., 2006). An object is appraised in relation to an individual's values, wishes and concerns, and emotion derives from this implication of the self (Kappas, 2006). Arnold writes that an emotion "can be considered as the felt tendency toward an object judged suitable, or away from an object judged unsuitable" (Arnold & Gasson, 1954: 294). In other words, we appraise an object as good or bad for us, what she calls *intuitive appraisal*, and this motivates us to approach it or avoid it (Kappas, 2006). This simple appraisal, explains Arnold, is the beginning of the emotional sequence and provokes both the appropriate actions and the emotional experience itself. She acknowledges the importance of physiological changes but as accessories of actions and experiences, not their origin (Schorr, 2001).

In a way, Magda Arnold relaunched Aristotelian and Stoic ideas. At the origins of Western philosophy, Aristotle characterized emotions as the result of our beliefs about the world, together with an urge to act. In his treatise on *Rhetoric* he defined anger as “an impulse, accompanied by pain, to a conspicuous revenge for a conspicuous slight directed without justification towards what concerns oneself or towards what concerns one’s friends” (Aristotle, 1941: 1380). For Aristotle, emotions were not differentiated by bodily upsets but by beliefs. The bodily upset called anger is the result of your belief that you or your friends have received an unfair affront.

The Stoics framed the discussion of emotions within ethics, seeking how to control them. Chrysippus, the third head of the Stoic school in the third century BC, spoke of first and second movements of emotions. First movements were automatic reactions of the body, thus unavoidable. Second movements, however, involved judgement and decision, and therefore were more under human control. Lazarus was to integrate first and second movements of emotions into his theory of primary and secondary appraisals.

#### *1.5.1 Lazarus’s theory of discrete emotions*

Like Magda Arnold, by the 1960s Lazarus was critical of the behaviourist research philosophy and its failure to examine what motivated emotion. He had dedicated the earlier part of his career to the study of stress, and raised the issue of its many different types – the stress related to losing a loved one to death, for instance, is unlike the stress of starting a new job. In his explanation, he put forward the notion that by means of



specific appraisal processes each kind of stress produces a particular kind of emotion.

The following quote explains his approach:

“This approach to emotion contains two basic themes: First, emotion is a response to evaluative judgments or meaning; second, these judgments are about ongoing relationships with the environment, namely how one is doing in the agenda of living and whether the encounter of the environment is one of harm or benefit” (Lazarus, 1990: 5).

Here, two critical themes come to the fore. On the one hand, as Aristotle and Arnold claimed, appraisals involve our judgement of how good or bad an event is; on the other, appraisals concern our goals and aspirations, and how we interact with the environment. Emotions, then, mediate between the outer world and our inner self (Oatley et al., 2006).

Lazarus postulated his theory of discrete emotions, distinguishing two types of appraisal: primary and secondary appraisal. Primary appraisal “has to do with whether or not what is happening is relevant to one’s values, goal commitments, beliefs about self and world, and situational intentions, and if so, in what way” (Lazarus, 2001: 42). In other words, a person evaluates an event as relevant or not to his/her goals; if not relevant, emotion does not occur. Next, a person evaluates whether an event is congruent or incongruent with his/her goals; goal congruent events produce positive emotions, while non-congruent events produce negative emotions. Finally, a person evaluates the relevance of the event against ego involvement; for example, an event

appraised as enhancing self-esteem produces happiness, but appraised as damaging self-esteem produces anger (Lazarus, 1991). Further differentiation of emotions ensues with secondary appraisals, directed at the assessment of a person's ability to cope with the consequences of an event (Schorr, 2001). Lazarus (2001) mentions three basic judgements that are likely to occur in secondary appraising: blame or credit for an outcome (who or what is responsible for a harm or a benefit?), coping potential (can I or can I not act successfully to change a harm or a benefit?) and future expectations (will the change be for better or worse?).

For example, anger is hypothesized as arising from primary appraisals of motivational relevance (what is happening is relevant to my goals) and motivational incongruence (what is happening is inconsistent with my goals), and the secondary appraisal of other-accountability (someone else is to receive the blame for the outcome of what is happening). Guilt also combines motivational relevance and motivational incongruence as primary appraisals, but with a secondary appraisal of self-accountability (I am to receive the blame for the outcome of what is happening) (Smith & Lazarus, 2001).

By integrating the partial meanings of primary and secondary appraisal into one cognitive-motivational-relational cause of emotion, Lazarus lists the *core relational themes* of emotions, "a terse synthesis of the separate appraisal components into a complex, meaning-centered whole" (Lazarus, 2001: 64) (see Table 1.1). The core relational theme of sadness, for instance, is said to be the experience of irrevocable loss (Lazarus, 1991). Several appraisal components contribute to this relational meaning: (1) a personal goal

commitment is (2) under threat and (3) I can do very little to avoid the damage. But none of them separately represents the whole meaning of sadness (Smith & Lazarus, 2001).

**Table 1.1** Core relational themes of emotions (Adapted from Lazarus, 1991)

<i>Anger</i>	A demeaning offense against me and mine.
<i>Anxiety</i>	Facing uncertain, existential threat.
<i>Fright</i>	An immediate, concrete, and overwhelming physical danger.
<i>Guilt</i>	Having transgressed a moral imperative.
<i>Shame</i>	Failing to live up to an ego-ideal.
<i>Sadness</i>	Having experienced an irrevocable loss
<i>Envy</i>	Wanting what someone else has.
<i>Jealousy</i>	Resenting a third party for loss or threat to another's affection or favor.
<i>Disgust</i>	Taking in or being too close to an indigestible object or idea.
<i>Happiness</i>	Making reasonable progress toward the realization of a goal.
<i>Pride</i>	Enhancement of one's ego identity by taking credit for a valued object or achievement, either one's own, or that of someone or group with whom we identify.
<i>Relief</i>	A distressing goal incongruent condition that has changed for the better or gone away.
<i>Hope</i>	Fearing the worst but yearning for better, and believing a favorable outcome is possible.
<i>Love</i>	Desiring or participating in affection, usually but not necessarily reciprocated.
<i>Gratitude</i>	Appreciation for an altruistic gift that provides personal benefit.
<i>Compassion</i>	Being moved by another's suffering and wanting to help.

### 1.5.2 Roseman's Model of Appraisal in the Emotion System

In 1979 at the 87<sup>th</sup> Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Ira Roseman, a graduate of Yale University working on his doctoral dissertation, presented a paper entitled "Cognitive aspects of emotions and emotional behavior". Later revised and published in 1984, the paper presents Roseman's theory regarding the cognitive determinants of particular discrete emotions. Like Lazarus, he believes that "discrete emotions are associated with basic ways of coping with events that bear upon a person's successful functioning in an environment" (Roseman, 1984: 30). Currently a major figure among emotion theorists, he is concerned with the development of appraisal theory but

also its empirical validation (Roseman, Spindel & Jose, 1990; Roseman, 1991; Roseman, Antoniou & Jose, 1996; Roseman & Edvokas, 2004; Roseman, 2004).

In his most recent model, he proposes seven cognitive dimensions which determine the occurrence of an emotion and which discrete emotion that will be: (1) *unexpectedness* refers to whether the event was expected or unexpected; (2) *situational state* refers to whether the event is consistent or inconsistent with a person's motives; (3) *motivational state* refers to whether the event is relevant to appetitive motives (wanting to get more of something pleasurable) or aversive motives (wanting to discontinue something painful); (4) *probability* refers to whether the consequences of an event are seen as certain or uncertain; (5) *agency* refers to who or what caused the event; (6) *control potential* refers to the perceived ability to control or do something about the event, and (7) *problem type* refers to whether the event is unwanted because it obstructs achievement of a goal or unwanted because of some inherent characteristic (Roseman, 2001).

According to the model, the specified appraisals combine to determine discrete emotions that occur in response to an event, but not all possible combinations produce a discrete emotion (Roseman, 2001). For example, appraising an event as inconsistent with an appetitive (reward-maximizing) motive, as an instrumental problem (goal blockage), caused by impersonal circumstances and with one's control potential high elicits frustration. Appraising an event as motive consistent and caused by another person elicits love, whether its motive is appetitive or aversive, whether the event is certain or uncertain to occur, and whether one's control potential is regarded as low or high.

Why do these appraisals produce these emotions? Roseman (1994; 2001) proposes an emotion system which integrates response and appraisal. First, he defines emotions as “syndromes” (Averill, 1980) or patterns of co-occurring responses. He believes that emotion syndromes have five response components (Roseman, 1994): the *phenomenological* component consists of characteristic thoughts and feelings (e.g. in fear, thoughts about danger and feelings of being cold with one’s heart pounding). The *physiological* component comprises neural, chemical and other physical responses in the brain and body. The *expressive* component includes facial, vocal and postural signals. The *behavioural* component encompasses action tendencies or readinesses to take particular actions (e.g. in distress, a readiness to move around, to leave). The *emotivational* component refers to distinctive motives or goals that individuals want to attain when they experience the emotion (e.g. in anger, wanting to hurt somebody; in shame, wanting to get oneself out of sight).

Roseman (1994) understands that each discrete emotion evokes a different pattern of responses, therefore it is this profile of phenomenological, physiological, expressive, behavioural and emotivational elements which differentiates one emotion from another. Furthermore, emotional responses do not combine erratically to compose emotion syndromes. When a person feels a particular emotion, emotional responses arrange themselves in the implementation of a distinctive strategy designed to cope with this particular situation. For example, responses that are characteristic of sadness (e.g. feeling a lump in the throat, weeping, tending to inaction, seeking recovery) seem components of a strategy to stop moving toward some stimulus (Roseman, 2001).

According to Roseman (1994; 2001) these coping strategies are organized in a coherent set of response alternatives, which involve either preparing to move, or moving, or suspending or ceasing movement; either moving away, or moving toward, or moving something else away, or moving against something; and moving with reference to objects and events, or other persons, or the self. Thus, he categorizes emotions with related strategies into families: anger, guilt and frustration are *attack emotions* and involve moving against something; shame, contempt and disgust are *exclusion emotions* and move the stimulus away from the self; regret, dislike towards someone, sadness, distress and fear are *distancing emotions* with strategies that move the self away from stimuli; and hope, joy, relief, affection towards someone and pride are *contacting emotions* and have strategies that move the self towards the stimuli.

What is the role of appraisals in this system of emotional responses? Appraisals function “to elicit the emotion that is relatively likely to be adaptive in the type of situation a person perceives that he or she is facing” (Roseman, 1994: 6). For instance, the response strategy of hope is preparing to move toward some stimulus. In Roseman’s model, for the emotion system to raise the response strategy of hope instead of other emotions, the appraisal system recognizes uncertainty versus certainty. The perception of uncertainty suggests that it is sensible to prepare but not yet react (Roseman, 2001). Thus, certainty elicits hope because it predicts when the response strategy of this emotion is “more likely to provide effective coping” (Roseman, 2001: 80).

### *1.6 Appraisal and second language acquisition*

To the best of our knowledge, the role of appraisals in connection to language learning has been researched mainly by Schumann (1994; 1997; Schumann & Wood, 2004; 2006).

His contribution to the field is based on the study of the brain and the neural mechanisms involved in certain aspects of language acquisition, especially motivation.

Schumann refers to language learning as *deep sustained learning*, “the kind of learning that requires the brain to become a specialist in something for which it has no specialization” (Schumann & Wood, 2004: 23): it is achieved over an extensive period of time, at the end of which learners develop into experts, and entails a great measure of individual variation (1997). Schumann explains that the wide range of proficiency among second language learners is attributable to a system of stimulus-appraisal. Drawing on Scherer (1984), he claims that individuals encounter situations and appraise their value on the basis of their novelty (whether the stimulus has been experienced before), pleasantness (whether the stimulus is attractive), goal/needs significance (whether the stimulus is relevant and instrumental to the individuals’ goals and needs), coping potential (whether the individual will be able to cope with the event) and self/social compatibility (whether engagement with the stimulus will enhance the individual’s self or social image) (Schumann, 1997; Schumann & Wood, 2004). These appraisals determine the emotional relevance of stimulus events in relation to past experience and generate an emotional response, which then guides action tendencies.

Schumann and Wood (2004: 29) consider learning as “a form of mental or intellectual foraging involving motor activity to acquire knowledge or skill”. They suggest that the

neural mechanisms that are employed in foraging to feed, for example, may also be involved in learning, so just as animals hunt when hunger initiates activity in the brain, learners' desire to learn represents a goal whose attainment requires motor or mental activity. Thus, language learners go to class, talk to native speakers, listen to foreign radio stations, memorize vocabulary lists or engage in any other learning strategy because they think that these will help their acquisition of the language. The positive appraisal of these learning situations along the above-mentioned dimensions prompts the brain to store them as predictive of reward, i.e. as facilitating the goal of learning a second language.

Schumann (1997; Schumann & Wood, 2004) believes that different patterns of appraisal constitute motivation, hence his interest not in how appraisals generate emotions, but how they "assess the personal relevance of stimuli associated with language learning and thus lead to action patterns that enhance or inhibit language acquisition" (Schumann, 1997: 21).

### *1.7 Emotion in second language acquisition*

In the preface to *Emotion in Education* (2007), a collection of papers showcasing contemporary studies in the areas of emotions and emotion regulation in education, Schutz and Pekrun highlight that in spite of their potential to influence positively and negatively teaching and learning processes, it is only recently that the inquiry into emotions in educational contexts has witnessed an emergence of research.



The language classroom follows an identical trend. Linguists concur that success and failure in language learning are partly determined by the learners' ability to regulate their emotions. As human beings, we are emotional creatures, therefore what we do and think bears the imprint of emotion, which in turn explains the prominence of current learner-centred approaches in second language acquisition. A plethora of published work seems to exist around terms such as anxiety, motivation, empathy, self-esteem or tolerance of ambiguity, yet we know very little about specific emotions. What about anger, joy, boredom, pride or shame? Should we imply by the poverty of interest that *normal* emotions do not stir language learners in any shape or form?

It is our view that emotions have been amalgamated with feelings, moods and attitudes and thus diluted, under the general term of affective issues. We intend to move away from linguists' broad conception of affect into the more particular understanding of emotion by emotion theorists, as incorporating phenomenological experiences, cognitive appraisal and some form of coping. Hence we put forward the following research questions:

1. What emotions do learners of a foreign language experience when using an audiographic conferencing system for oral interaction with other learners and a tutor?
2. What is the appraisal pattern of these emotions, following Roseman's model?

In answering these questions our aim is three fold: 1) we seek to provide a clear and detailed description of particular emotions, and what causes them; 2) we hypothesize that such description may enable us to find common ground among individual differences; and 3) we hope that ultimately such analyses may contribute to awareness among teachers and learners of appraisal and emotions, and perhaps even greater conscious control of them in the interests of effective language learning in online environments.

In the following chapter we review the literature on affect in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in traditional, distance and computer-assisted settings, as we set the stage for our study. In Chapter 3 we describe the design of a mixed method approach and examine the ethical considerations of the project. Chapter 4 presents the analysis of data obtained in questionnaires and interviews. We discuss our findings and their implications in relation to second language teaching and learning in the final chapter.

## Chapter 2

### Literature Review

#### *2.1 Introduction*

We structure this review from the general to the specific. We first establish the relevance of affect in second language acquisition and examine how affective issues have been studied as part of individual differences. Next we focus on how affect is treated in distance language learning and in the field of computer-assisted language learning. Finally, we look at the efforts of researchers at the British Open University in relation to synchronous audiographic conferencing for distance language learning, and how emotion figures in their work. [Note that in this dissertation we do not follow the distinction between second language – learnt in a setting where it plays an institutional and social role in the community – and foreign language – learnt primarily in a classroom setting, with no role in the community (Ellis, 1994)].

#### *2.2 Affect in SLA: From Krashen's affective filter to individual differences*

In 1999 Cambridge University Press published *Affect in Language Learning*, to date the only anthology on affective issues in the field. In the introduction, editor Jane Arnold and H. Douglas Brown set out the definition of affect which permeates the volume: “aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour” (Arnold & Brown, 1999: 1). Just as psychologists discovered the role of emotions in human

behaviour and neural scientists found their place in the brain, linguists concur that in language learning both cognition and emotion have a say and neither the upper hand.

Such a broad characterization of affect, however, (and Arnold uses the well-fitted fable of the elephant and the blind men to illustrate different research directions, all valid but partial) was not new at the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. In fact, it was initially Dulay and Burt (1977), then Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), who introduced affect under similar terms.

Considering the mental processes involved in second language acquisition (SLA), Dulay and her colleagues refer to the *filter*, “that part of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language based on what psychologists call “affect”: the learner’s motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states” (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982: 46). The filter represents an attempt to explain how affective variables such as motivation, social group identification, relaxation and anxiety affect L2 learning. It is thought to function as a determinant of (1) the target language model the learner will select; (2) the parts of the language to which the learner will attend first; (3) when the language acquisition efforts should cease, and (4) how fast a learner can acquire the language (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982: 46).

Building on this work, Krashen (1982) proposed his theory of second language acquisition in five hypotheses. Of particular interest to us is the fourth of these, the Affective Filter Hypothesis: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety are variables which influence successful language acquisition. If poorly motivated, lacking in self-confidence and suffering from high levels of anxiety, a person’s affective filter is up, blocking out the processing of input. By way of contrast, high motivation and self-confidence, paired

with low anxiety, are equivalent to a low affective filter, and therefore a person who is better equipped to learn a new language.

Detractors of the Affective Filter Hypothesis were quick to point out that Krashen's account of how the filter operates as a restrictive mechanism was rather vague (McLaughlin, 1987). For example, are we to assume that the filter has the grammatical knowledge to distinguish verbs from adjectives in selecting which part of the language the learner should learn first? Does a learner who struggles to pronounce /x/ correctly in Spanish, but otherwise has flawless pronunciation, harness an unconscious aversion of the sound? Does the indifferent learner learn more than the highly motivated?

Furthermore, McLaughlin (1987) is sceptical of the need for an affective filter to explain individual variation in L2 learning. He says that abundant evidence contradicts Krashen's claim that adolescents' feelings of insecurity and vulnerability mark the beginning of adults' high affective filter, and the reason why children reach higher levels of L2 acquisition. Indeed, he stresses that most adults grow out of their teenage fears, and that we should not presuppose that self-confident and secure adults make better learners solely on that basis. In time, his conclusion that "it is extremely difficult to show any relationship between personality factors and language learning" (McLaughlin, 1987: 55) was to be proved wrong.

Nowadays, predicting L2 learning success has consistently been related to the study of individual differences (ID). Interest in language learning IDs has grown steadily since the 1960s, first examining motivation and language aptitude, then other factors derived from research on the good language learner (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978).

Currently one of the most widely published areas in SLA, we select two influential, single-authored monographs to frame our review, Peter Skehan's *Individual Differences in Second Language Learning* (1989) and Zoltán Dörnyei's *The Psychology of the Language Learner* (2005).

Aware that in 1989 SLA lagged behind other disciplines with an already well established tradition of ID studies, Skehan's seminal volume aims "to review such ID research as exists, and to demonstrate its relevance to other aspects of SLA, so that its influence may be all the greater in the future" (Skehan, 1989: 1). Consequently, he devotes three chapters respectively to what he considers well-defined areas in which language learners differ: language aptitude, motivation and language learning strategies. A fourth chapter briefly accommodates additional cognitive and affective influences on language learning: the extraversion-introversion dichotomy, risk taking, field independence and anxiety. To these, he adds learning styles in a follow-up article on the same subject (Skehan, 1991).

*The Psychology of the Language Learner*, at least chronologically, represents the future that Skehan awaited. Like his predecessor, Dörnyei offers an overview of past ID research; however, he is still at pains to link IDs to the most relevant processes of SLA: in the L2 literature, he declares, "very little is said about the actual processes and mechanisms that are responsible for causing the differential learning impact" (Dörnyei, 2005: 3).

With the objective to correct this trend, Dörnyei's book deals in detail with personality, ability/aptitude, motivation, learning styles and learning strategies, before relegating

anxiety, self-esteem, creativity, willingness to communicate and learner beliefs to a cramped final chapter.

With the exception of motivation, we have observed that these two authors banish affective variables to the second half of their books. This stance suggests that their relation to L2 learning is still open to debate, either because they are too new a concept to have generated enough research – as is the case of willingness to communicate – or because they figure as part of a greater ID construct – creativity seen as a component of intelligence, for instance.

In this respect, Ellis (2004) presents a more balanced view. His categorization of factors responsible for IDs in L2 learning comprises *abilities* (cognitive capabilities for language learning), *propensities* (cognitive and affective qualities involving preparedness or orientation to language learning), *learner cognitions* (conceptions and beliefs about L2 learning), and *learner actions* (learning strategies) (see Table 2.1).

**Table 2.1** Factors responsible for IDs in L2 learning (Ellis, 2004)

1. Abilities	(a) Intelligence	
	(b) Language aptitude	
	(c) Memory	
2. Propensities	(a) Learning style	
	(b) Motivation	
	(c) Anxiety	
		(i) Anxiety (trait)
		(ii) Risk taking
		(iii) Tolerance of ambiguity
	(d) Personality	(iv) Empathy
		(v) Self-esteem
		(vi) Inhibition
		(vii) Extroversion
3. Learner cognitions	(e) Willingness to communicate	
	(a) Learner beliefs	
4. Learner actions	(a) Learner strategies	

*Abilities* are innate and relatively fixed; *propensities* are determined by personal preference and thus more fluid (Ellis, 2004). Here, we outline each of the factors in Ellis' list of propensities.

### 2.2.1 *Learning style*

Learning style is defined as "an individual's preferred way of processing information and of dealing with other people" (Ellis, 2004: 534). As a composite of cognitive and affective abilities, the relevance of learner style in SLA lies in the distinction between field-dependent and field-independent individuals.

The construct of field independence is measured with the Embedded Figures Test, which asks the subject to pick out a target shape embedded in the background of an illustration. Thought to be an indicator of how we perceive and organize the world, field-independent individuals have no difficulty in isolating figures in a complex pattern; they can separate the essential from the inessential, they are analytic and thus more cerebral, detached and less inclined to social interaction. On the contrary, field-dependent individuals are more holistic. For them the world is an unanalyzed whole, they are gregarious and outgoing (Witkin, Goodenough & Oltman, 1979).

The implications for SLA take form in two hypotheses, slowly gathering pace in the literature: that field-dependent learners' interpersonal skills aid their acquiring a L2 informally; and that field-independent learners do better in a formal setting due to their analytical skills (Ellis, 2004).



While different models have been proposed by various researchers (for instance, Reid's (1987) visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group and individual types), we conclude this section highlighting the pedagogical benefits of studying learning styles. On the one hand, learners will gain from working through L2 tasks that match their preferred way of learning; on the other, encouraging learners to identify both their own learning style and the assets in other approaches will result in more efficient and flexible learning (Ellis, 2004).

### 2.2.2 Motivation

Motivation in L2 learning is one of the most extensively investigated areas of IDs. From a psychological perspective, motivation concerns the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, that is to say, it "explains why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity" (Dörnyei, 2001a: 7). In the L2 field, motivation researchers have widely followed the work of Robert Gardner, who argued that learning a second/foreign language also requires learning the culture of the speakers of that language (Gardner, 1979). Between the 1960s and 1990s, therefore, most scholars devoted their studies to find out how the students' desire to learn a L2 was influenced by their perceptions of the language, its culture and its speakers. Gardner introduced the idea that learners' interest in the L2 depends on their good disposition towards the L2 community – *integrative orientation* – and the practical value they see in the new language – *instrumental orientation*.

In the 1990s, however, his theory came under criticism. It was suggested that motivation not only leads to achievement, as Gardner indicated, but also follows on from success in L2 learning. In addition, regard for the learning experiences of individuals and a myriad of personal factors meant that motivation could no longer be as static as the social-psychological position postulated. Furthermore, motivation needed to address the possibility of learners developing an intrinsic interest in the process of their learning, or stand to lose its pedagogical relevance (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

A boom of L2 motivation research ensued to address these issues, pushing the boundaries further afield from SLA and resulting in an extraordinary array of theoretical models. One of the most influential was Dörnyei's (2001b) *process model*: focusing on the temporal aspects of motivation, it envisages a *preactional stage*, where learners set their goals and intentions; an *actional stage*, where *executive motivation* is at play as learners maintain action and hopefully accomplish their goal; and a *postactional stage* of evaluation of the learning experience which will affect any future endeavours.

This development makes L2 motivation a factor amenable to pedagogic influence. How can teachers motivate their students? Dörnyei (2001b) proposes thirty-five strategies ranging from creating a pleasant class atmosphere and increasing the students' expectancy of success, to boosting their confidence by making them active participants in the learning task.

For Schumann, however, the question is not about what type of motivation is best for second language acquisition. As we saw in the rationale of this dissertation, he supports the cognitive view that motivation is construed by the learners' appraisal of the stimulus

situation and their decision to approach or avoid it. His argument then is that there may not be a best motivation; what is needed instead is enough positive appraisal to sustain the effort for the time necessary to achieve proficiency in the second language (Schumann & Wood, 2004).

In recent years, as the status of English as a global target language has prompted a revision of the concept of integrative orientation, there has been a major theoretical shift in L2 motivation research towards the notions of self and identity (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). Thus, for instance, Dörnyei's 'L2 Motivational Self System'. Drawing on Higgins' (1987) self theory, he explains that at the core of learners' motivation there is an *ideal self* – the representation of the attributes that someone would ideally like to possess – and an *ought-to self* – the attributes that one believes that one ought to possess. The L2 facets of one's ideal and ought-to selves are powerful motivators to learn the language because of our desire to reconcile both our actual and ideal selves (Dörnyei, 2009a). Alternatively, Ushioda (2009: 215) offers what she calls a 'person-in-context relational view' of motivation. Her focus is not on motivation as a linear cause-effect relationship, but a complex and dynamic system of interaction "between real persons, with particular social identities, and the unfolding cultural context of activity".

### 2.2.3 Anxiety

Often documented as detrimental to motivation, anxiety has become a key issue in language learning (Hurd, 2005a). Learners may experience anxiety as a stable feature of their personalities (trait anxiety), or in particular contexts (situational anxiety). In his

review of the literature, Scovel (1978) established that multiple learner variables suggest that scholars must clearly conceptualize anxiety before committing to measuring its effects on language learning. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) defined language anxiety as different from trait anxiety and unique to L2 learning. In their view, language anxiety is a composite of communicative apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. The first refers to the frustration that students experience when they are unable to make themselves understood or understand others, due to a mismatch of mature thoughts and limited L2 vocabulary. Fear of negative evaluation arises in the L2 classroom where students feel socially inappropriate and constantly evaluated by teacher and peers alike. Test anxiety, the third component, derives from a fear of failure whereby students “put unrealistic demands on themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure” (Horwitz et al., 1986: 30). In this light, since proficiency checks and error-making instances are common, test-anxious students are likely to see the foreign language classroom as problematic.

Horwitz and colleagues’ theory was assessed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), who then sustained the formers’ observation that language anxiety is distinct from any other type of anxiety, concerning communicative apprehension and fear of negative evaluation. Their results, however, indicated that test anxiety is not a specific problem of the language classroom.

In other studies, anxiety is also specifically a language classroom event. Heron (1989: 33) describes its components in three questions that trouble learners: “*Acceptance anxiety.*

Will I be accepted, liked, wanted?... *Orientation anxiety*. Will I understand what is going on?... *Performance anxiety*. Will I be able to do what I have come to learn?"

Overall, anxiety is found to obstruct language learning, its effects manifested in "deficits in listening comprehension, impaired vocabulary learning, reduced word production, low scores on standardised tests, low grades in language courses or a combination of these factors" (Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997: 345).

Nevertheless, as with motivation, researchers openly ponder whether anxiety is the cause or the result of poor L2 achievement (Ellis, 2004). Introducing the Linguistic Coding Difference Hypothesis, Sparks and Ganschow (1991) state that foreign language learning is based primarily on language aptitude, and that students' anxiety about foreign language learning is likely to be a consequence of their learning difficulties. Committed to such claims, Sparks, Ganschow & Javorsky (2000) dismissed Saito, Horwitz and Garza's study on reading anxiety, and by extension Horwitz et al.'s (1986) hypotheses about general foreign language anxiety, as misguided, and cautioned not to accept affective variables as causal factors in L2 learning.

In response, Horwitz (2000) concedes that processing difficulties may cause anxiety in some learners, but argues that, since advanced and highly successful learners also report anxiety reactions, and anxious language learners do not consistently perceive themselves to be anxious, it cannot be alleged that cognitive deficits are the sole cause of language anxiety. She concludes that "language learning is a complex interpersonal and social endeavor and to reject the role of affective factors is myopic and ultimately harmful" (Horwitz, 2000: 258).

In an attempt to settle the argument, Ellis (2004) appeals to the strength of both positions and the dynamic nature of anxiety. He coincides with Sparks et al. in that learners' language aptitude impacts upon achievement, which in turn can provoke anxiety. But he also concurs that learners' anxiety often has a debilitating effect on their future learning, as maintained by Horwitz.

On a separate note, language anxiety has not always been considered deleterious to language learning. A distinction between *debilitative* and *facilitative* anxiety has been made to indicate that learners who experience a bit of tension over a task are better prepared to get it done (Brown, 2000). Indeed, Spielmann and Radnofsky (2001) do not consider stress a quantitative parameter (more or less intense), but are more interested in its qualitative dimension. Their ethnographic study of tension among adult learners of French at an intensive residential course distinguishes between *euphoric* anxiety (i.e. an event is endowed with a positive valuation) and *non-euphoric* anxiety (i.e. an event is endowed with a valuation that is not entirely positive, without being entirely negative); and between *dysphoric* (i.e. an event is endowed with a negative valuation) and *non-dysphoric* anxiety (i.e. an event is endowed with a valuation that is not entirely negative, without being entirely positive).

#### 2.2.4 Personality

Self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, empathy, extroversion and tolerance of ambiguity are among the personality variables that have been examined in SLA. In the next few paragraphs, research on each of them is briefly summarized.

Coopersmith (1967: 4-5) defines *self-esteem* as “a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself”. The literature reveals three different levels of self-esteem – global (trait-like), situational (state-like), and relating to the task – and demonstrates that these figure in successful language learning. Yet Brown (2000) asks the question of whether high self-esteem causes language success or vice versa.

In the process of gaining language skills, *inhibitions* are closely linked to sense of worth. Human beings use inhibitions as defences to protect their identity. The weaker the learners’ self-esteem, the higher the barriers they build around their self. Guiora, Brannon and Dull (1972) introduced the concept of *language ego* to refer to the new identity that learners of a second language develop en route to linguistic competence. The language ego clashes with the individual’s identity: the self feels endangered and embarrassed, reluctant and afraid of making mistakes. Learners whose language ego is characterized by a certain degree of versatility in coping with such threats are capable of lowering the inhibitions that may impede acquisition.

Another personality variable in L2 learning is *risk-taking*. Progress in SLA is closely connected with making mistakes. Yet it is often the case that learners avoid taking risks for fear of appearing foolish in front of their peers, tutors or native speakers. Researchers indicate that the atmosphere in the L2 classroom must make students comfortable and encourage them to experiment without feeling embarrassed. It has also been noted that high risk-taking does not necessarily have positive effects in language learning.

Successful learners of a second language are said to be those who make not wild guesses, but calculated ones (Brown, 2000).

The next two factors, empathy and extroversion/introversion, are concerned with the individual as a social being. Putting yourself into someone else's shoes is how Oxford (1990) describes *empathy*, an ability to reach out beyond the self to understand what others feel. Psychologists observe that it is paramount to know yourself, be aware of your own feelings in order to empathize with another person. When communicating successfully, individuals interpret each other's cognitive and affective states; having to do this in a foreign language complicates matters further. Learners are likely to find themselves misread by native speakers, and it is for this reason that establishing what empathy means in different cultures becomes a key issue in language learning.

Often synonymous with gregariousness in Western society, the term *extroversion* actually refers to "the extent to which a person has a deep-seated need to receive ego enhancement, self-esteem, and a sense of wholeness from other people as opposed to receiving that affirmation from within oneself" (Brown 2000: 155). Stereotypes have influenced teachers' perceptions of their students in the L2 classroom to the point that extroverts are hailed to be more participative and hence ideal to have in one's group. The truth is that it is neither apparent that extroversion aids language learning, nor that introversion delays the process of SLA. Studies reported in Brown (2000) establish, for example, that while extrovert learners may be willing to contribute more, introverts' pronunciation benefits from their patience and ability to focus. Dewaele and Furnham (1999) say that extroversion affects both L1 and L2 speech production. Under pressure to



perform in the L2, extroverts are said to cope better with stress than introverts; regarded as risk-takers, they sacrifice accuracy for speed. Introverts, nonetheless, are cautious and in fear of punishment, hence spend more time accurately constructing their speech in spite of a breakdown in fluency.

Last in our review of personality variables we turn to *tolerance of ambiguity*, “the degree to which you are cognitively willing to tolerate ideas and propositions that run counter to your own belief system or structure of knowledge” (Brown, 2000: 119). Substantial uncertainty and contradiction await the L2 learner: words that do not relate in the native language, rules with exceptions that render them inconsistent, a whole new culture and its people. Therefore, according to Ehrman (1999), it is not surprising that tolerance of ambiguity is considered a key element if the learner is to succeed in language learning aimed at real communicative use. She connects tolerance of ambiguity to the concept of ego boundaries: “Thickness of ego boundaries has effects on students’ ability to learn by osmosis, to make use of teachers or other native speakers as models with which to identify, to permit development of a target language persona, and above all to tolerate ambiguity” (Ehrman, 1999: 68). Students with thick ego boundaries are less empathetic, more inhibited, not likely to tolerate ambiguity easily and thus less able to experience themselves in a variety of ways and to see the world in the eyes of other people; in sum, to take in another language and another culture (Ehrman, 1999). The literature, however, does not provide enough evidence to support tolerance of ambiguity as a convincing predictor of L2 achievement.

Although not included in Ellis' (2004) list of personality variables and largely ignored by most L2 researchers, we believe that a brief reference to *locus of control* is relevant here. Locus of control is related to a person's beliefs about how much control they have over what goes on in their lives; accordingly, the term *internalizers* is applied to those who see themselves responsible for everything, and *externalizers* to those who feel that life events are caused by forces beyond their control, such as fate, luck or other people. Findley and Cooper (1983) establish that internalizers are more successful than externalizers in relation to academic achievement, which prompts Williams and Burden (1997) to suggest that language teachers can help to foster the internal beliefs of language learners.

#### 2.2.5 *Willingness to communicate*

Willingness to communicate (WTC), "the intention to initiate communication, given a choice" (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Conrod, 2001: 369), is a composite of linguistic and psychological variables, until recently scarcely discussed in SLA. It pertains directly to the communicative language teaching approach, as a point of reference for those concerned with justifying why learners, often highly competent in the target language, avoid participating in L2 conversations.

To date, most studies on WTC have been of a quantitative nature. MacIntyre, Baker, Clément and Donovan (2003) found WTC in L1 a trait-like quality of individuals, but a situated construct of trait and state characteristics in L2, closely related to the concept of language anxiety (Clément, Baker & MacIntyre, 2003), and learner beliefs (MacIntyre et

al., 2001). Kang's qualitative report shows that WTC in an L2 is primarily "a dynamic situational concept that can change moment-to-moment, rather than a trait-like predisposition" (Kang, 2005: 277). She observed that WTC in L2 is affected by situational variables – topic, interlocutors and conversational context – in interaction with the psychological conditions of excitement ("a feeling of elation about the act of talking"), responsibility ("a feeling of obligation or duty to deliver and understand a message, or to make it clear"), and security ("feeling safe from the fears that nonnative speakers tend to have in L2 communication"). Pedagogically, she concludes, situational variables can be manipulated to create L2 learners' situational WTC; for instance, by providing a safe environment for learners to communicate without fear of making mistakes, that is, listening carefully, smiling and actively responding to them.

#### *2.2.6 Learning strategies*

Apart from propensities, which we have just covered, Ellis (2004) includes *learner actions or strategies* in his list of IDs influencing SLA. No review of affect in language learning would be complete without mentioning how it figures in this area.

Learning strategies in SLA have been described as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990: 8). From the mid-1970s researchers have been preoccupied with classifying learning strategies and discussing the good language learner in terms of strategy use (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Naiman et al., 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Graham, 1997; Cohen, 1998; Macaro, 2001;

Chamot, 2004). Different language learning strategy classification systems have been developed that primarily separate strategies according to their direct or indirect effect on the learning task. Chamot (2004) reports that Oxford's (1990) categorization of strategies into metacognitive, cognitive, memory, compensation, social and affective, remains unrivalled in comprising the variety employed by language learners. Affective strategies, Oxford (1990) states, help language learners to control their emotions. She establishes three different types – strategies for lowering one's anxiety, strategies for encouraging oneself, and strategies for taking one's emotional temperature. Each of these is further divided as in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.2** Classification system of affective strategies (Oxford, 1990)

1 Lowering your anxiety	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation
	Using music
	Using laughter
2 Encouraging yourself	Making positive statements
	Taking risks wisely
	Rewarding yourself
3 Taking your emotional temperature	Listening to your body
	Using a checklist
	Writing a language diary
	Discussing your feelings with somebody else

Good language learners are said to be those who use strategies flexibly, selecting which to employ in keeping with their long-term goals and the task they look toward. There are a number of factors which have an effect on this selection: learner age, stage of learning, gender, the target language, learner cognitions, learning style, and setting. However, conclusive results have not accompanied the host of research carried out into

these, in part “for lack of a theoretical account of how learning strategies relate to psycholinguistic processes involved in L2 acquisition” (Ellis, 2004: 546).

To summarize what has been said so far, the interest in affective issues in SLA is directly linked to the study of IDs and their role in predicting successful L2 learning. The literature portrays motivation, and to a lesser extent anxiety, as a significant locus of research, while remaining interested in aspects of personality, learning style, willingness to communicate and learning strategies. Above all, IDs are generally dynamic, and interact with each other and other factors to contribute to L2 acquisition. How this occurs is what occupies the minds of researchers.

In 2009 Dörnyei suggested a radical new approach to IDs research based on the central position that psychological aspects are gaining within the study of second/foreign language acquisition. Dörnyei (2009b) discusses a reconceptualization of traditional ID factors – language aptitude, motivation, learning/cognitive styles, learning strategies and anxiety. For him, they lack stability, are context-dependent and multicomponential in nature, and interact in multiple ways with each other and the environment, characteristics which also help other personality facets such as emotions, interests and general knowledge to qualify for ID consideration. He understands that individual differences may be explained within a dynamic systems framework of interacting cognitive, affective and motivational components.

In the next section we establish the importance of affect in the context of distance language learning.

### *2.3 Affect and distance language learning*

“Distance education is seen as a form of teaching and learning which is not under the supervision of teachers present with their students in lecture rooms or generally on the same premises, but which benefits from the support of a tutorial organization. It has two constituent elements: the mediated presentation of learning materials (print, recordings, etc.), and interaction between students and tutors (in writing, by email, on the telephone, etc.) and now also peer-group interaction in online or tele conferences.” (Holmberg, 2005: 166).

Holmberg’s enumeration of the ingredients of distance education contributes to a definition of distance language learning. Keegan (1990), probably one of the most cited authors, highlights what he considers essential elements of teaching and learning a language at a distance: separation of tutors and learners, provision of two-way communication, use of technical media and the influence of an educational organization. In her state-of-the-art review article of research on distance learning of foreign languages over the past three decades, White (2006) observes that a definition does not exist that reflects the complexity of distance language education in practice.

As a socially and culturally bound activity, researchers broadly endorse the view that learning an L2 is not like learning other subjects (Dörnyei, 2003a). Hurd (2005b) explains that it is the significance of this social dimension which accentuates the frailties of distance language learning. The distance context, she says, is inherently non-social;

removed from a classroom situation, students lack opportunities for interaction in the target language and immediate support from peers and tutor.

The advent of computer-mediated-communication (CMC) and online technologies have transformed distance learning, and resulted in new environments where the development of interaction thrives. Whereas the focus of research has been on advances in technology, it is generally accepted that building our knowledge of the key participants in the process of distance language learning must not be abandoned. White (2003) places the learner at centre stage.

According to her, one of the key issues in language teaching at a distance is to develop learner awareness. At the early stages of course design, knowledge of distance language learners is vital for course production teams to decide on curriculum, materials, modes of delivery, use of technology, assessment, etc and to plan student support. With the course under way, tutors use the information that students provide about themselves to adapt to their different backgrounds (e.g. novice vs experienced distance learners), foster and personalize interaction, provide feedback, address student concerns, provide support and monitor how learners respond to the course. In recent years, other areas have attracted a particular focus from researchers, intent on a more complete awareness of the distance language learner, namely the environment where learning takes place, the dynamic nature of the distance learner and the affective factors of distance learning (White, 2003). For the purpose of this study, we shall concentrate from this point forward on the latter, that is, affective factors in a distance learning context.

Distance language learners are acquainted with the same array of emotional episodes that affect their classroom peers, described in a previous section of this review. What is different in the distance context is the additional emotional charge of being often isolated, separated from other students and tutors, and having limited opportunities for social contact and interaction (White, 2003). While the past fifteen years have witnessed an increase in the number of publications in distance language learning and teaching (White, 2006), affect remains a relatively neglected topic of study (Hurd, 2007a; Bown, 2006; Harris, 1995). The literature identifies empathy, motivation and anxiety as the most relevant affective factors influencing distance language learning (White, 2003; Hurd, 2005a).

### *2.3.1 Empathy*

“An empathetic approach on the part of the teacher is fundamental to learners’ satisfaction with distance study” (White, 2003: 116). The distance language tutor must adopt a teaching style that is empathetic to the context and circumstances of each learner (Holmberg, 1995). Such an approach dominates the teaching voice of course materials – personalized and empathetic – and also tutor-learner interactions. Distance learners expect their tutor to be a subject expert, but also respond promptly and cordially to their concerns (Stevenson et al., 2000). Programmatic, depersonalized and brief interactions have a negative effect on language learning (van Lier, 1996). The onus is on the tutors to engage with learners in positive interaction if the latter are to overcome their anxiety, feelings of frustration and isolation, and persevere in their efforts to learn a foreign



language at a distance. The extent of personal involvement required, however, challenges the expectations of those who come to distance language teaching from classroom-based instruction. Strambi and Bouvet (2003), for example, report on a project that implemented two low-technology courses of French and Italian in Australia, offered at a distance to cater to students unable to attend regular face-to-face language classes. The instructors recruited to deliver the courses for the first time accepted the need to fully and personally interact with students, but at the same time resented such a close relationship, which upset their prevailing belief that one should always keep a certain degree of professional distance.

### *2.3.2 Motivation*

Motivation is one of the factors that learners themselves identify as important for success in distance language learning (Hurd, 2006, 2008; White, 1999, 2003). White (1999) asked a group of beginning learners of Japanese and Spanish which conditions they felt were important for success as a distance language learner: motivation and confidence in one's capacity to cope with the challenge of distance learning attracted the highest results. More recently, Hurd (2006) obtained similar results. In two questionnaires submitted to Open University students of lower intermediate French at the start and half-way through their course, participants ranked being motivated as the most important personality trait in distance language learning. They also found it more difficult to maintain motivation at a distance rather than in the classroom, and cited among reasons for their demotivation insufficient interaction with other students, competing

commitments and not having a private space for studying. All of these fall within the confines of a more general trend observed in other studies as contributing to fluctuating motivation levels in distance language learners: their feeling of isolation and their struggle to adapt to the distance environment (White, 2003).

The higher emotional demands of the context contribute to the wider range of affective strategies that distance language learners use in comparison with their classroom peers. Probing further into learners' insights into ways of staying motivated throughout the course, Hurd (2006) explains that her respondents selected positive self-talk as the most important strategy. While not providing a definition of *self-talk*, the researcher gives statements such as "I shall be so pleased if I stick it out", "I shall be disappointed with myself if I give up now", "I really enjoyed the video activities in Book 1 and there will be more of them" to clarify what she means to students answering the questionnaire. White (2003) labels this kind of talk, saying positive things to oneself, as *self-encouragement*, and adds *self-reinforcement* – rewarding oneself after finishing an activity – and *self-talk* – using techniques to feel competent to carry out a task – to her list of affective strategies. Particular to distance language learners, however, White emphasizes the importance of the *self-motivation* strategy, which she defines as "providing the impetus to keep going by reminding oneself of reasons for or advantages of continuing with the course" (White, 2003: 117).

### *2.3.3 Anxiety and self-regulation*

To the best of our knowledge, there has been only one project where researchers set out to investigate anxiety in distance language learning, reported mainly in Hurd (2007a) and Hauck and Hurd (2005). This longitudinal study involved 277 language learners at the Open University, UK (OU), and quantitative and qualitative data gathered from responses to two questionnaires, one-to-one telephone interviews and think-aloud-protocols (TAPs).

In Hurd (2007a), the author enquired about the reasons of learners to study a language at a distance, and their beliefs about distance language learning; the elements of the distance language learning process that caused anxiety and non-anxiety; and the strategies that learners employed to cope with anxiety.

The results from the first questionnaire, administered at the beginning of the course (February), show most students citing practical reasons for choosing the distance mode of study; for those who cite reasons other than practical, reduced stress is one of the most important. However, after four months of study, responses to the second questionnaire reveal that over three quarters of the participants declare having encountered difficulties with learning at a distance, among the most serious being, affective problems such as worrying about failure and feeling isolated.

Asked whether distance language learning made them feel more or less anxious than classroom instruction, in both questionnaires a 'No difference' response scores the highest. Interestingly, in June the percentage widens from that in February, with most of

those who change their mind moving from 'less anxious' to 'no difference' (Hauck & Hurd, 2005; Hurd, 2007a).

To explore the elements of the distance language learning process related to anxiety, Hurd (2007a) adapts MacIntyre and Gardner's (1994) anxiety measure of *input* – related to external materials; *processing* – learning and thinking in the target language; and *output* – speaking or writing in the target language. Of the three interdependent phases, she finds that the highest evidence of anxiety corresponds to the output stage. As 84% of respondents in February agreed that having to perform orally makes studying a language more stressful than other subjects (Hauck & Hurd, 2005), the results of the second questionnaire are not surprising. Distance language learners do not deviate from the widely accepted belief that foreign language anxiety is associated with speaking. They declare feeling tense when they had to speak in the target language; not being able to retrieve expressions when nervous; and getting upset when they knew how to communicate something in the target language but could not verbalize it (Hurd, 2007a: 495).

At the same time, the analysis of qualitative data from open-ended questions and TAPs affords additional anxiety-provoking elements specific to distance language learning, which Hurd (2007a: 495-6) lists and illustrates with students' statements: lack of instant feedback; difficulty assessing personal progress in comparison to other students; isolation; lack of opportunities to practise orally; lack of confidence when working on one's own; unclear task instructions; answer keys which are felt to be intimidating; nature of tasks; and use of technology.

By way of contrast, 27% of students claim that studying at a distance makes them feel less anxious, as they feel that they have more opportunities to work at their own pace and be more in control; are not exposed to public criticism; lack competition or peer pressure; have a chance to practise and make mistakes in private, to reflect and to try things out; and believe that distance is better for those with low self-confidence (Hurd, 2007a: 497).

Lastly, those respondents who report experiencing no anxiety attribute this to their age, their competence in another language, not having to perform in front of others; and the fact that they study at a distance through choice (Hurd, 2007a: 497-8).

The latter part of Hurd's questionnaires is occupied with finding out the strategies that distance learners deploy to reduce their anxiety. Taking risks and using positive self-talk are ranked the most important strategies by a majority of respondents. However, the author emphasizes that two thirds attest to not having found a strategy to control their nerves. We share her opinion that although these learners may not feel anxious and therefore not see the need for a strategy, their percentage is still substantial. In concluding that "it would be reasonable to speculate that the most anxious students are also the least able to help themselves and that these are the students who could benefit the most from guidance in affective strategy development" (Hurd 2007a: 499), she establishes reaching these learners as a priority for distance educators.

Despite technological advances and increasing opportunities for communication, accessing distance language learners remains for researchers an enterprise beset by multiple constraints. First, there is the distance issue; secondly, even when heard, their

voices may not be telling the full story (Hurd, 2007b). In this regard, Hurd (2007b) proposes the use of think-aloud-protocols (TAPs) as a method of particular relevance to the distance mode: by asking learners to verbalize and record their thoughts as they work through a given task, when and where it suits them, the researcher directly accesses their 'hidden' mental processes, and potentially, gathers information on how they approach their learning beyond simply cognitive activity.

Twelve volunteers, adult learners of French at beginners' level with the OU, took part in her investigations. The extensive amount of data generated was electronically coded according to affective factors, metacognitive knowledge, and strategies.

Her findings concentrate first on the emotions that learners experience while tackling a language task. She reports positive emotions (pleasure, satisfaction, relief, laughter and excitement), as well as negative emotions (frustration, boredom, disappointment, difficulty, uncertainty, confusion and embarrassment). In this respect, Hurd's work is mainly descriptive; she tells us what triggers emotions – for instance learning tips, instructions for the activities, answer keys – and who felt what more frequently, without delving deep into the effect of these feelings on the learners and their learning.

When exploring affective strategies, Hurd's argument supports linguists' view that emotion and cognition are closely linked. Her TAPs reveal that learners' use of strategies to deal with negative emotions often involve cognitive and metacognitive processes – an anxious student looks at the answer key to dispatch her insecurity; another feels tired and decides to postpone completing a task that she finds scary.

The use of affective strategies is directly linked to the greater need of distance learners to regulate their learning. In the context of self-instruction, it is essential that they develop “an awareness of the process of language learning, and of themselves as learners, and an understanding of the need to devise their own means of learning and of managing their learning” (White, 2003: 23). Hurd (2006) sustains this rationale: she observes that distance language learners have a good understanding of their learner roles, and develop the skills of self-management that these roles imply. Participants in her project believed that they had become more effective distance language learners as they gained in confidence, reflected on their strengths and weaknesses, worried less about making mistakes when speaking the target language, participated more in conversation, took risks and organized their time better. The fact that learners in Hurd (2007a) were able to answer questions about the aspects of learning a language at a distance that made them anxious or non-anxious, and about the strategies deployed in such instances is further evidence of their engaging in reflection on themselves and the learning context. Think-aloud-protocols also revealed a connection between emotions and self-evaluation, as learners expressed their feelings about their own performance, for instance blaming themselves for not understanding or underperforming (Hurd, 2007b).

From a methodological point of view, learning about emotions is a delicate and often problematic affair. On the one hand, it does not always seem ethical to ask; on the other, a true account is never guaranteed. By asking learners to record their thoughts as they are occupied with a language task, we believe that Hurd (2007b) succeeds in proposing a very fit tool to explore affect. In combination with other research instruments, valuable

knowledge has been gained from TAPs to inform changes in distance language courses – for example, Hurd (2007b: 255) recommends anticipating the sensitivities of adult learners and offering appropriate strategies, or simply avoiding likely misinterpretations in the task instructions. We trust that all participants in Hurd's projects benefited from having been encouraged to reflect on their learning, albeit probably unbeknownst to them, and thus work towards the researchers' desire of self-awareness and self-regulation for distance language learners. We also estimate that the impact might be wider. By actually implementing proposed changes in distance courses such as those mentioned above, it makes sense that we hypothesize that a higher number of learners will be reached. Therefore, we might not be giving a voice to those who need to be heard, but potentially we are still offering a solution to their concerns.

To briefly recapitulate, affective dimensions are particularly significant for distance language learners who, separated from peers and tutors, are more dependent than their classroom counterparts on their capacity to manage their own feelings. Empathy (especially on the part of tutors), motivation and anxiety come into sharper focus as learners strive to develop an awareness of self and context, and the strategies to cope in the distance mode. It is seldom, however, that we account for the tremendous variability of emotion events: can a student, unhappy with her tutor, apply the same strategy to her demotivation as someone who judges her progress slow? Am I to take risks when I feel anxious because I cannot write a short essay after a long day at work? We believe that the need exists to expand the self-awareness of distance language learners into



understanding the cause of their feelings (positive and negative), and the effects that these have on their learning.

Next, we consider how emotion figures in research conducted on language learning and computer-mediated communication (CMC).

#### *2.4 Affect in CMC*

The remarkable pace of technological innovation of late has undoubtedly generated new and more convenient opportunities for learning, and thus contributed immensely to the expansion of distance language learning around the globe. In effect, the Internet and other computer-based technologies work to counteract the physical separation of teachers and learners, who have found “technology-mediated ways to develop their interactive competence in the target language” (White, 2007: 97).

Yet, although we may think it recent, distance language learning originated in the mid 1800s with one-way, print-based correspondence courses. In their four-generational model, Wang and Sun (2001) refer to these as the first generation of distance language teaching, a cost effective means of easily reaching a large number of students. Bereft of communicative potential, first generation courses became second generation, enhanced by the use of broadcast technologies and other forms of multimedia learning. Printed materials remained the dominant mode of delivery, complemented with audio and video-cassettes which attended to listening skills. In the early 1990s, the advent of CMC began to rectify the lack of interaction of previous generations. Third generation

computer-based media (interactive CD-ROMs, Web presentation of course materials, email and discussions lists) opened up asynchronous collaboration for distance language tutors and learners, while a fourth generation of courses incorporated synchronicity through Internet-based real-time technology (audiographics, chats, videoconferencing and virtual reality).

Despite widespread recognition of the importance of the affective domain in SLA, in the field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) it is very much under-researched. Lamy and Hampel (2007: 76) observe that “for many of the positive aspects of CMC there is a corresponding negative impact”; for example, whereas written environments are said to reduce anxiety, synchronous audio environments have exactly the opposite effect. Let us explore the matter further.

Early research into socio-affective issues has been on the subject of written CMC, revealing facilitative effects in terms of learner experience. Kelm (1992) reports on a group of fifteen non-native students of Portuguese who participated in class discussions via real time computer networks. Among other observations, he notes a reduction in anxiety, although he is adamant to deny any assertion “that written practice on the computer has a direct or immediate cause-and-effect relationship with increased speaking proficiency” (Kelm, 1992: 453). Beauvois (1992), also investigating synchronous computer-assisted classroom discussions, remarks how computers can hide personality and social cues, thus contributing to a non-threatening classroom environment, which in turn heartens anxious and shy learners to participate more readily and more often. The positive attitude of students towards electronic discussions is also recorded by

Warschauer (1996). His study of 16 students enrolled in an advanced English as a second language composition class gives an account of their feeling that “they could express themselves freely, comfortably and creatively, (...) and that they did not feel stress during electronic discussions” (Warschauer, 1996: 16). Kern (1995) supports his contemporaries’ findings as he alludes to the potential of written CMC for lessening anxiety, encouraging learners’ collaborative spirit and increasing their motivation. Describing how MOOs – Multiple User Domain (MUD) Object Oriented, text-based virtual reality systems accessed through the Internet – can promote language learning, Sanchez (1996) also mentions the motivating nature of written CMC. She adds that connecting to a MOO as a virtual character and not one’s real self accommodates a certain degree of anonymity under which students “should be less apprehensive and experience less embarrassment from mistakes” (Sanchez, 1996: 153). However, she does not show empirical evidence to corroborate her assertions. Had it not been for earlier studies, we would have been compelled to regard her argument as speculative.

Once established that written CMC reduced anxiety and promoted motivation among language learners – even though results may have been affected by the intrinsic appeal of the new technology and the fact that participants were mostly volunteers – researchers at the turn of the century went on to explore what prior colleagues had been reluctant to claim, namely the effect of CMC on L2 oral proficiency.

Payne and Whitney (2002) set out to test whether L2 oral proficiency can be indirectly developed through online written interaction. In their study, a total of fifty eight learners of Spanish were divided into two control groups receiving normal classroom instruction,

and two experimental groups working two contact hours out of four a week in a chatroom. Comparing their tests, they found that the experimental groups gained in oral proficiency over the face-to-face groups, showing a direct transfer of writing to speaking skills. Not subject to normal turn-taking, conversational interaction online results in more language production; as they cannot call on the paralinguistic compensation strategies of face-to-face exchanges, chatroom users experiment more with their language; they also monitor their output and that of their classmates more closely, focusing on grammatical accuracy. In addition, the reduced pace of chatroom discourse, and the fact that students can re-read comments on the screen reduces memory load which has been found to benefit some learners.

Nonetheless, Payne and Whitney warn against the thought that oral skills can be developed entirely in online written environments. Just as flight simulators assist pilots in training, the authors invite the use of chatrooms as conversation simulators for foreign language learners. "For students who find L2 oral production an overwhelming task and tend to tune out when the linguistic data generated in face-to-face conversational settings becomes too great, the online synchronous interaction appears to give them a leg up on developing L2 oral proficiency" (Payne and Whitney, 2002: 25).

Roed (2003) presents an identical line of reasoning. She set up a project to investigate the behaviour of language learners communicating in a chatroom. Like her predecessors, she observed that this kind of environment helps to reduce language anxiety. We find that her analysis makes a very valid point in reminding teachers and learners that foreign language students cannot spend their entire lives writing, and eventually will

have to employ their oral skills. The benefits of written CMC, she notes, rest on its functioning as scaffolding: “gradually giving anxious students more confidence to embark on conversation in the target language” (Roed, 2003: 170).

While Payne and Whitney (2002) and Roed (2003) see written CMC as a platform for practising oral communication in terms of linguistic abilities, Arnold (2007) shows its carry-over effect on students’ anxiety. Fifty six learners of German as a foreign language were assigned to three different groups – face-to-face, synchronous CMC (chats) and asynchronous CMC (email) – and engaged in regular discussions so that the researcher could assess the extent to what each mode lowered students’ communication apprehension. Her findings suggest that “CMC can have lasting positive effects on communication apprehension associated with oral interaction in the foreign language” (Arnold, 2007: 482). It is noteworthy that, although with limitations and hence preliminary, her data also contradict the assumption that synchronous and asynchronous text-based CMC are more effective than oral classroom interaction in reducing anxiety.

In the mid 1990s internet-based audio conferencing systems expanded the possibilities of interaction beyond written communication. Allowing for asynchronous and synchronous voice transmission over the Internet, these tools present language learners with the opportunity to work on their aural and oral skills (Hassan et al., 2005).

First, let us present research carried out on *Wimba*, an asynchronous voiced threaded bulletin board. *Wimba* allows students to record messages for peers and tutor, and listen to recordings from peers and tutor (Felix, 2004). Admitting to not having conducted

rigorous research on the impact of the application on oral competency, Felix's observations derive from her experience as a user. She highlights *Wimba's* simplicity of use, and explains that "students of all ages confirm that they feel at ease and confident in attempting quite complicated oral activities" (Felix, 2004: 287).

Other researchers make *Wimba* the centerpiece of their investigations. Cho and Carey (2001) use the forum with a small group of beginner learners of Korean to understand how technology can supplement course work and enhance learners' speaking and listening skills. The possibility of re-recording their messages and repeatedly playing their tutor's comments meant that learners gained in accuracy and fluency. The online voiced forum also served as a replacement for face-to-face oral examinations. The authors report the advantages of saving time and reducing the students' stress levels: they had more time to listen to the questions and reply, re-record their contributions and, as they were sitting at their computer and not in front of an examiner, felt less nervous.

McIntosh, Brail and Chao (2003) used *Wimba* in a case study to improve the listening and speaking skills of forty-one students enrolled in a course of English for Academic Purposes. Their aim was to test the students' reactions to the voiced forum, and assess the effectiveness of combining *Wimba* with classroom oral activities. The majority of those responding to McIntosh and colleagues' survey describe a positive experience, and say that they felt more confident about taking part in classroom conversations after having used *Wimba*. Some, however, report feeling embarrassed when recording their

voices and having them heard by their peers; and others felt frustrated at the time delay, which made the exchange of ideas in the asynchronous forum less dynamic.

Charle Poza (2005) looks in detail at the influence of asynchronous computer voice conferencing on learners' anxiety when speaking in a foreign language. She formulates three research questions: what is the learners' perception of their language anxiety when speaking in *Wimba*?; how empowered do the learners feel to take risks?; and how concerned are they about being evaluated by others?. She administered three questionnaires to a group of thirty five students of Spanish at intermediate level to test their computer anxiety, foreign language classroom anxiety, and anxiety in *Wimba*. She then complemented her quantitative data with interviews with four of the participants.

Her findings show that, although statistically anxiety was experienced regardless of the environment, students were less nervous using *Wimba* as they appreciated the opportunity to spend more time replaying and editing contributions in the voice board.

In addition, *Wimba* facilitated a greater amount of risk-taking, supported by the lack of time constraints and the absence of peers and instructor from the forum. Whereas students produced more language, and longer and more complex sentences, they also made more mistakes, thus prompting our comparison with text-based CMC where a greater output accompanied a greater attention to accuracy (Payne and Whitney, 2002).

Finally, a majority of students reported reduced fear of negative evaluation when speaking in *Wimba*: having more time for messages translated into better confidence about the quality of their output.

Research in the area of asynchronous oral applications and language acquisition is slowly maturing. The studies we have reviewed here share with those on written CMC the limitation of reporting on a relatively small number of subjects, and relying primarily on observation and learners' self-reports. The results also coincide in that interaction in the voice-based asynchronous environment is said to function as scaffolding for face-to-face conversations in the target language. Yet, to the best of our knowledge, no work has emerged that analyzes the L2 output of students to correlate their improvement on oral performance to the use of the technology.

### *2.5 The Open University's experience of synchronous audiographic conferencing*

As computers and the Internet evolve to allow for synchronous interaction, the next step is to turn our attention to audiographic CMC tools. Hampel and Baber (2003: 171) define these as "applications that support tools to allow both audio communication and manipulation of text and images within the same environment". They discuss the theories which underpin the development and research into audiographic resources from the perspective of second language acquisition – the need to provide learners with opportunities to hear comprehensible input, negotiate meaning and produce comprehensible output – but also incorporating the sociocultural and multimodal dimensions of CMC. Making authentic, many-to-many communication available, audiographic conferences vindicate the constructivist approach that knowledge is co-constructed in meaningful interaction. By juxtaposing visual, verbal and written modes, language learners see the technology accommodating their different learning styles.



In the late 1990s, when the supply of commercially available software was not as wide as it is today, some educational institutions, the Open University UK among them, chose to design their own audiographic conferencing systems to directly serve their students and staff.

With over 160,000 undergraduates and 18,000 postgraduates, the Open University is one of the largest providers of distance education worldwide. In the last five years it has consistently ranked among the highest in overall student satisfaction in the National Student Survey by The Times Higher Education Supplement, and in the top 5% of UK universities for teaching quality by The Sunday Times University Guide. In 1969, in his address as first Chancellor of the university, Lord Crowther described the university's mission: "open as to people, places, methods and ideas". Since then, the OU's commitment to openness has delivered, among other provision, an admissions policy where no formal qualifications requirement applies; learning opportunities at home, in the workplace and for an increasingly mobile population; and the use and development of the most effective media and technologies for learning, teaching and assessment.

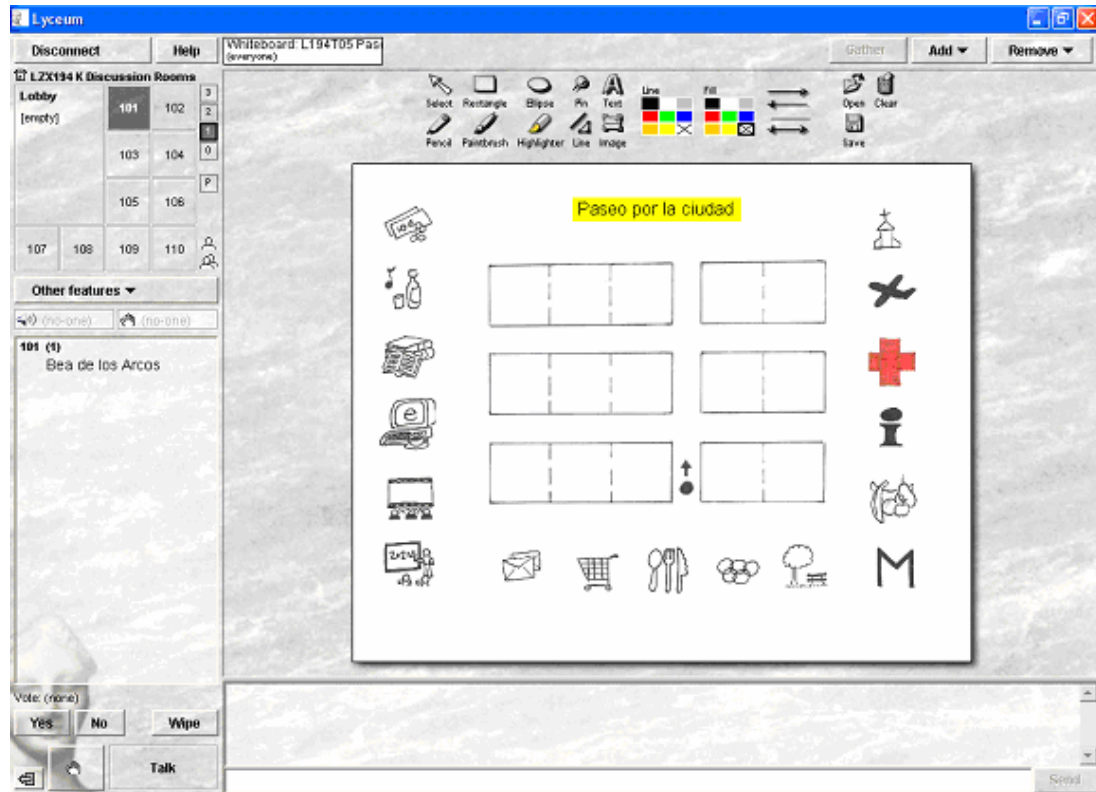
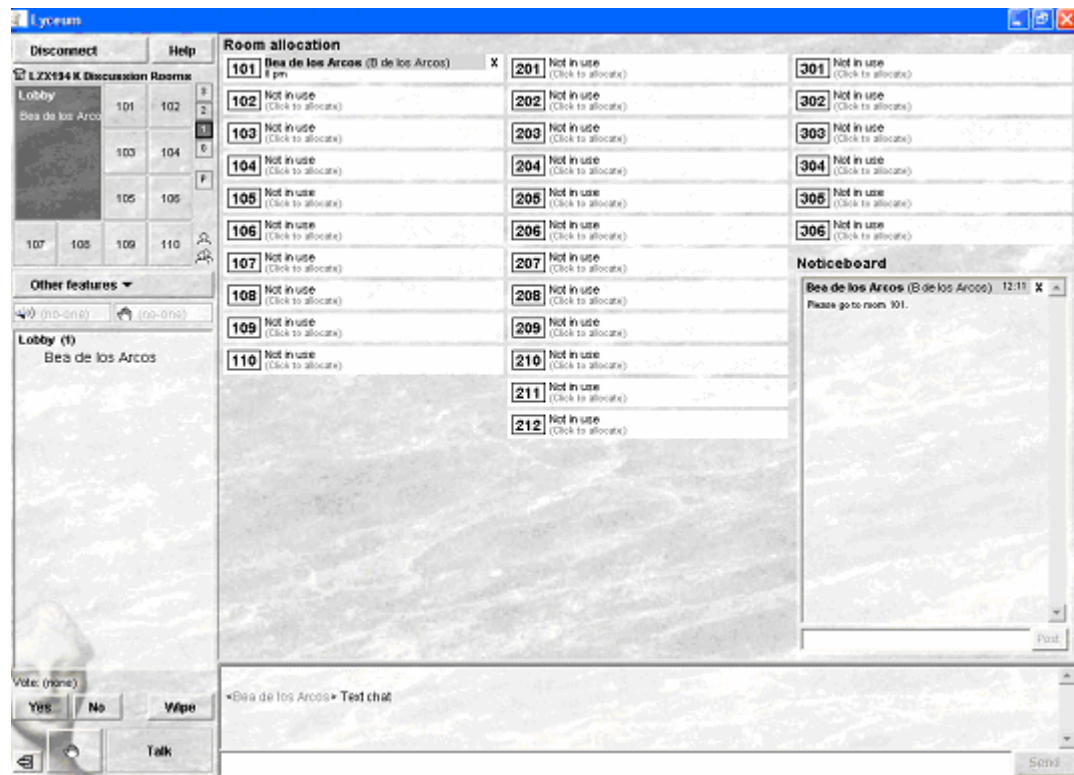
The Department of Languages (DoL) at the OU, formerly the Centre for Modern Languages, offered its first course – in French – in 1995. Nowadays, around 7,000 students enroll each year in five languages: French, German and Spanish up to C1 level in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, and ab initio Italian and Welsh. Chinese will be taught at beginners' level from November 2009. In addition, the English Language Unit within DoL is concerned with the development of discipline-specific academic literacy across the OU curriculum.

Under the current method, students receive a set of materials, comprising normally textbooks, and audio and video content (over the years cassettes have been replaced by CDs, and VHS tapes by DVDs). They also have access to a Moodle-supported course resources website, and to an asynchronous written conference. As courses complete their usual life-cycle, the new revamped versions assume a greater use of technology: materials are accessible on an interactive DVD-ROM, and the course website proposes a higher level of engagement with elements such as blogs, quizzes and forums. Students work at their own pace but have to meet fixed deadlines for tutor-marked assignments and end-of-course examinations. They receive feedback from their allocated tutor, and attend non-compulsory tutorials either face-to-face, via telephone or online.

Lyceum is a real-time, many-to-many audiographic conferencing system created by the Knowledge Media Institute at the Open University for educational purposes. It operates over the standard Internet via the OU's centralised servers, and requires a 16-bit graphics and sound card, headphones and a microphone (for a more detailed technical description of the design, implementation and deployment of the software, see Buckingham et al., 2001).

Its architecture is constructed on the metaphor of a building: when users log on with their OU computer username and password, they arrive at a lobby from which they can enter any of the rooms situated on three floors (see Figure 2.1). Each room features a text chat, and a shared workspace with whiteboard, concept map and document modules which anyone can manipulate: whatever one person does is updated on all other screens. The text chat allows text-based conversations; the whiteboard is a simple

Figure 2.1 Lyceum interface



drawing application, where text, shapes, free-hand drawing and screen-grabbed images can be placed on the screen and moved around; the concept map works as a tool for graphically describing concepts and links between them; and the document module functions as a word processor application. Normally, the tutor will have worked on the content of the modules and uploaded them before a tutorial. These can then be saved by students onto their hard disks for revision, either individually or in their study-groups. On the left-hand side of the screen the system displays the names of the users present at the conference. Beside the names, a small speaker-phone indicates who is talking, a raised-hand icon indicates who wants to take the floor, and a 'tick' or a 'cross' signal *yes* or *no* votes. If temporarily absent from the conference, the users click on an 'away' button, which makes their name fade away and informs other users of their unavailability. There is also a 'gather' button which calls participants to look at whatever the person who gathered them is looking at. An indefinite number of breakout rooms can be created from the plenary room for pair or small group work, all retaining the original features. A timer can be sent to all users in the plenary or breakout rooms. Both text chat and audio interaction can be saved too (but this privilege is usually only given to tutors and researchers). Lyceum functions on a 24/7 basis and is accessible for all language learners, regardless of online tutorials being an integral part of their course.

As Lyceum serves as platform for this project, and at a time when the Department of Languages (DoL) has already started to phase it out, we dedicate the next section to explain how it originated, and review the research it has prompted since its launch mainstream in 2002.

As we mentioned above, the Department of Languages (DoL) at the Open University offered its first course in 1995. As all other DoL courses, it was aimed at building on the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. To provide opportunities to interact orally in the target language with each other, and improve confidence and fluency, students were offered the possibility of participating in face-to-face tutorials. However, for a variety of motives, not all are able or willing to attend such sessions.

For this reason in the 1995-1996 session the then Centre for Modern Languages decided to trial telephone conferencing. Four groups of 6-8 students participated in 8 tutorials from April to September, managed by two volunteer tutors. Each session lasted approximately 45 minutes during which time students worked through activities which mirrored those of the face-to-face classroom, mainly focusing on accuracy of form. The tutor would prepare an agenda in advance and send it to the students, who most of the time over-prepared and read out their answers. "The knock-on effect of this tended to be a lack of spontaneity (...) and a distinct unwillingness to avoid risk-taking" (Stevens & Hewer, 1998: np). Moreover, the lack of visual cues and body language resulted in a highly-managed environment (Shield & Hewer, 1999), with students waiting to be invited to speak, and hardly ever interrupting each other, a far cry from face-to-face oral interaction.

The following year, the experience was repeated, although with a different approach: tutors were discouraged from replicating text-book activities on the phone, and supported in their efforts to promote more spontaneous exchanges by the students. The

feedback from participants was positive in that they reported feeling more motivated, less isolated, and having improved their pronunciation (Shield & Hewer, 1999). However, “sessions continued to be a compressed version of face-to-face work and gave the impression of being a bit bitty and disjointed” (Hewer, 2000: 3).

As research suggested the advantages of text-chat as a rehearsal tool for oral communication (Chun, 1994; Warschauer et al., 1994), and bearing in mind that no study of this nature had been conducted with distance language learners (Stevens & Hewer, 1998), the Centre for Modern Languages adopted a task-based model, combining the use of email and telephone tutorials for the next set of pilot projects (Stevens & Hewer, 1998; Shield & Hewer, 1999; Hewer, 2000).

During the course of 1996-1997, four groups of 6-8 students took part in two activities each. The activities normally began with a telephone conference where the task was explained and, in some cases, specific roles allocated to students. Then they worked in sub-groups via email collaboratively with peers and a tutor during 2-3 weeks, preparing for a final plenary on the telephone (Shield & Hewer, 1999; Hewer, 2000). “The tasks were designed to enable students to ‘rehearse’ their arguments during the email phase, but not to script what they were actually going to say” (Hewer, 2000: 4). Consequently, there were fewer read responses and more spontaneous talk. As in previous studies, the benefits also included affective issues: a great sense of camaraderie, less isolation, more confidence in speaking, and for some learners, less fear of making mistakes (Hewer, 2000). As for disadvantages, it was noted that telephone conferences are expensive, must

be arranged in advance, do not allow for meetings outside scheduled sessions and mostly do not facilitate small group work (Shield & Hewer, 1999).

The impetus gathered from their prior projects, helped by the progress in quality and reliability of voice-over-Internet applications, inspired DoL researchers to explore the possibilities of such tools in terms of added flexibility for distance language learners. It was vital “to adopt the available technologies to the pedagogy rather than the pedagogy to the technology” (Shield & Hewer, 1999: 382), therefore it became a priority to identify learner needs before deciding on which technology would most adequately match those requirements.

To meet the demands of distance language learners implies offering them plenty of opportunities to practise their aural and oral skills and develop fluency in the target language. As fluency means producing accurate vocabulary and structures, under pressure of time and without preparation (Hewer, 2000), it is obvious that it cannot be achieved by learners on their own. Also, to function effectively as autonomous learners, distance learners must deploy a set of strategies which more often than not they are wrongly assumed to have (Kötter, Shield & Stevens, 1999; Kötter, 2001). The design of learning activities can address these issues: fluency is likely to be helped by contextualized, task-based activities which involve placing the learner in a recognized role (Shield & Hewer, 1999), while the guidance of a tutor can be progressively reduced to promote autonomy (Hauck & Haezwindt, 1999; Kötter, 2001).

With all this in mind, DoL researchers secured a learning environment which combined a web-based audio client for real-time, many-to-many oral communication (*VoxChat*), email, and a website.

The features of *VoxChat*, similar to those of Lyceum, were found to improve on telephone conferencing in more ways than simply eliminating the need to travel long distances to attend tutorials: users would meet in a plenary room, their names listed so that a name could be put to a voice; an icon signalled who was speaking; a text chat allowed for the exchange of brief written messages; and new rooms could be created for small group work (Kötter et al., 1999; Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001). Students could arrange their own sessions in *VoxChat* to work collaboratively outside scheduled plenaries, or use email to communicate with tutors and peers to complete the designated tasks (Kötter et al., 1999). The website functioned as the main point of reference, with information about activities, partners' contact details and FAQ-style technical help (Kötter et al., 1999; Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001).

In 1998 and 1999 three pilot studies were run to assess the benefits of online provision for distance language learners. Two of those comprised the FLUENT project (Framework for Language Use in Environments Embedded in New Technology), carried out in two stages. The first involved two groups of learners of German and a group of learners of French, each initially with 8-12 students, over three months after the end of their OU course in October 1998. The second, from March to June 1999, involved forty-five students divided into four German groups and two French groups working in the online environment alongside their language courses. Believing that graphics would add



to the learning environment by introducing a visual element to focus students' attention as well as support their actual words (Hewer, 2000), the third pilot project incorporated the use of *Rendezvous*, a shared whiteboard with synchronous text chat and a facility to send prepared graphics simultaneously to all those in the same virtual room (Shield, 2000; Hewer & Shield, 2001). Two groups of some eight volunteers from the second French course took part in the audiographics trial from November 1998 to January 1999. The findings of these studies have been disseminated in several conference presentations (Stevens & Hewer, 1998; Kötter, Rodine & Shield, 1999; Shield & Rodine, 1999; Kötter & Shield, 2000; Shield, 2000; Lamy & Shield, 2001; Shield, Hauck & Hewer, 2001) and research papers (Kötter et al., 1999; Hauck & Haezwindt, 1999; Shield & Hewer, 1999; Hewer & Shield, 2001; Kötter, 2001). In the next few paragraphs we focus on the experiences of learners and tutors separately.

In relation to the effect of the online learning environment on learner performance, researchers first note the relevance of the absence of visual cues, as students struggled to determine when speakers finished their turn (Kötter et al., 1999; Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001). Consequently, there were uncomfortably long periods of silence before someone took up the floor, which only became less frequent as learners got used to the context (Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001). In addition, deliberately having to press the talk button to make themselves heard, meant that students could not be as spontaneous as in face-to-face or telephone conversations, and could not use back channel cues such as *yeah*, *uhm* without interrupting the flow of the conversation (Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001). Because they talked to 'disembodied voices', learners maintain it was

“harder to actively contribute and much easier to ‘hide’ making the whole process much less fluid” (Kötter et al., 1999: 58). Kötter (2001) observes this situation is more acute in less advanced learners, but also points out that as they familiarized themselves with the tool, all students gained in confidence and discussions became more natural.

Overall, participants in these pilot projects welcomed the opportunities to speak formally and informally (Kötter, 2001), carrying out meaningful and motivating activities in the target language (Shield, 2000), and appreciated an improvement in their performance (Shield & Hewer, 1999). For some, not seeing other people in the conference helped them to speak more confidently and feel relaxed. Others had to overcome their nerves, were initially reluctant to take risks, and conscious of the fact that they made more mistakes than in a face-to-face classroom (Kötter et al., 1999; Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001). In our opinion, the increased amount of errors seems to validate the prediction that in the online environment accuracy will take second place to fluency (Kötter et al., 1999). Even then, it is the increased awareness of making errors that researchers are keen to emphasize as a direct effect of the technology on the learners who always feel under pressure to speak (Kötter et al., 1999; Kötter, 2001). On the other hand, the absence of body language and other context cues forces students to concentrate much harder on what is being said (Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001). Kötter (2001: 339) hypothesizes that such focus of attention “increased their engagement in the learning process and the processing depth of the learned material”.

The analysis of participant responses to the online learning environment also revealed the high importance that distance learners assign to being part of a learning community

to reduce isolation (Shield & Hewer, 1999; Shield & Rodine, 1999; Shield, 2000). Lamy and Shield (2000) specify that it is the learning community and not the language community which influences L2 learners the most. As such, the online environment of the FLUENT and audiographics trials was successful in providing a (virtual) social space for learners to inhabit. Their online communities developed the same characteristics as classroom-based groups: rapport, social support, collaboration on learning and a feeling of responsibility for each other (Shield, 2000). Indeed after the end of the pilots, some learners continued to meet regularly online in self-help groups with the purpose of chatting in the foreign language, some making friends with people they probably would never meet otherwise (Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001).

The tutors were the key figures in the success of the projects (Hauck & Haezwindt, 1999; Kötter, Rodine & Shield, 1999). According to Hauck and Haezwindt (1999: 50) they had to be confident in the use of the online tools to be able to deal appropriately with glitches during the sessions; they also had to adapt their teaching style to suit the environment – for example, coping with long silences – and develop strategies to help students to take a more active role in their learning. As weeks progressed and learners became more autonomous, tutors evolved into managers of learning resources and organizers of learning events.

Comparing tutor roles in the synchronous audio conference with the tutor roles identified by Dias (1998) in email-based learning activities, Hauck and Haezwindt (1999: 51) experienced the same unpredictable flux of changing characters: “teacher as confidant”, giving learners and insight into the project’s rationale to encourage their

active participation; “teacher as nervous parent”, coping with the possibility of misuse of the conference; “teacher as trouble-shooter”, offering technical advice; “teacher as student”, benefiting from learners’ keenness to collaborate with peers and tutor; and “teacher as human being”, getting to know each other through the flexibility of communication provided by the audio client.

Lamy and Goodfellow (1999: 467) distinguish between social and cognitive tutoring styles in their study of asynchronous text conferences by referring to the tutor who encourages socialization as opposed to the tutor who is “subject-knowledge oriented”. Shield, Hauck and Hower (2001) consider that the majority of tutor roles in synchronous audio conferences are social in nature, and add a third tutoring style, administrative, when the tutor acts as convenor, time keeper or troubleshooter. Interestingly, learners in the FLUENT and audiographics trials expected a cognitive rather than a social tutor, as they expressed their preference for instant feedback and error correction. Kötter (2001) explains that in the online environment it is difficult for tutors to provide this kind of support without either interrupting the conversation, or asking the person to go through the more threatening and inconvenient experience of joining them in a separate room. For this reason, new ways in which to provide feedback in synchronous networked oral interactions need to be investigated, bearing in mind that the limited availability of visual cues requires a higher dose of sensitivity “to ensure that students receive the message that is intended, in both cognitive and social terms” (Shield et al., 2001: 82)

What other outcomes can be drawn from these early studies on the use of an Internet-based, synchronous audio tool in distance language learning and teaching? In relation to

the design of tasks, Kötter, Rodine and Shield (1999: 1059) warn against the assumption that “every activity that works in a face-to-face setting can simply be transferred to a virtual, audio-conferencing environment”. Kötter (2001) says that with groups of less than four or five students, online activities do not work and motivation is difficult to maintain. The degree of support that learners need, especially during the first few weeks of the projects, both in terms of pedagogical and technical assistance – one fifth of those who dropped out gave technical reasons for doing so (Kötter, 2001) – indicates that providing the software and leaving the rest to the users can easily be labelled a lazy and counterproductive policy (Kötter, Rodine & Shield, 1999). Shield (2000) adds that all distance language learners, not only those who cannot attend face-to-face tutorials, can benefit from access to an online learning community, given its potential to reduce isolation. More research is warranted in areas such as tutor feedback and error correction (Shield et al., 2001; Kötter, 2001); the changing roles and relationships of online teaching and learning (Hauck & Haezwindt, 1999); the effect of virtual learning environments on actual learner performance (Kötter et al, 1999; Shield & Hewer, 1999); and more efficient ways and/or combinations of tasks for lower-level learners (Kötter, 2001: 348).

The research emerging from the FLUENT and audiographics projects was invaluable in that it initiated the discussion into how distance language learners could benefit from the use of Internet-based voice conferencing technologies, and firmly set the foundations for Lyceum.

### *2.5.1 Early research into Lyceum*

In July and October 1999, having accepted the invitation of the Knowledge Media Institute at the Open University to join forces in the evaluation of the functionalities of Lyceum, the Centre for Modern Languages set up two small scale projects with different aims in mind. On the one hand, the software had to be tested for technical problems when used by multiple users, and its functions – at the time only the whiteboard and concept map modules, and breakout rooms – assessed from a language learning perspective. On the other, the pedagogical model (as in previous trials, promoting oral fluency through tasks which comprised online tutor-led plenary sessions and independent work by the students via email or meetings in Lyceum) had to be evaluated. And finally, additional features had to be identified which could enhance the experience of distance language learners in Lyceum (Hewer, 2000).

Hewer and Shield (2001: 61) summarize the outcomes of these Lyceum trials as follows:

“Students enjoyed working within an integrated environment, experienced few problems in making full and independent use of the tools, and considered that the nature of the task, the supportive virtual learning environment and the consultant role played by the tutor provided a valuable learning experience.”

Several issues that earlier projects had highlighted resurfaced here. Learners hailed the opportunities that Lyceum afforded them to meet outside scheduled times, either for collaborative work on their tasks or simply for socializing with each other. It also once again became apparent, for example, that students needed time and help to get used to

the new environment, and that it was only after gaining in confidence that they produced more complex language in more natural exchanges (Kötter & Shield, 2000). With relevance to the features that could improve the functionality of Lyceum, Hewer (2000) recommended many of the components of the software as we know it today: the provision of a tool for shared editing of word files, a text chat which could be turned on and off, a web browser, a timing device, the ability to paste and manipulate images on the whiteboard, a summoning button, and the option to record the sessions. Given the positive feedback received from volunteer participants in the trials, her final proposal urged course teams to consider “the optional and ultimately compulsory participation in interactive online activities to replace some of the course work (...), and the replacement of some face-to-face tutorials by online work” (Hewer, 2000: 19).

As the Department of Languages prepared to launch its first course to deliver tutorials exclusively using Lyceum, the next set of pilots examined the effectiveness of three areas which previous research had identified as major in the successful development and implementation of online tuition: task design, tutor training and student support (Hampel & Hauck, 2004).

Hampel and Hauck (2004) explain that, with a pedagogical rationale based on theories of second language acquisition and sociocultural learning, the core of task design was to provide learners with opportunities to hear and read comprehensible input, negotiate meaning and produce comprehensible output, while engaged in authentic, collaborative, oral/aural activities in the richness of a multimodal environment. Students were asked to access selected websites and course materials, and exchange information with peers

outside scheduled online meetings, working together towards a common final goal (e.g. a radio programme). Topics were intended to be relevant and meaningful to learners, so that they could draw and build on previous knowledge. Additionally, warm-up activities were devised to address the need to gradually familiarize users with the features of the online environment, and also help them to get to know each other and overcome their inhibitions, which in turn fostered collaboration. In order to evaluate the tasks and the audiographic conferencing tool, thirteen volunteers answered a questionnaire after taking part in two online tutorials. Adding these data to the comments of an observer and the tutor, Hampel and Hauck learnt about the technical issues that tarnished the online experience of most learners, while they were also able to ascertain that the warm-up activities were effective in serving the purpose for which they had been created. On the other hand, having to do preparatory work in-between sessions proved detrimental for some students, since those who had not had the time to prepare could not participate as comfortably in the final plenary.

With reference to tutor training, Hampel and Hauck (2004) explain that, prior to the beginning of the course, tutors attended a number of induction sessions aimed at instructing them on technical issues, and also rehearsing the pedagogical skills needed to lead tutorials via Lyceum. Feedback gathered after training highlighted that, although enthusiastic about their impending use of the online environment, tutors disapproved of the effect that sound or Internet-Service-Provider (ISP) problems could have on the learning experience. Other concerns raised coincided with those of tutors in a face-to-face situation – for example, how to support weaker students, or deal with those who



are reluctant to speak. In our opinion, the authors' suggestion that tutors in such cases rely on their imagination and professional judgement seems rather unhelpful and at least unsupportive, given the fact that, having just received limited training, their online tutoring skills have barely been put to use.

As established by early research (Kötter & Shield, 2000), Hampel and Hauck (2004) consider the provision of student support a priority of effective online tuition. At an institutional level, as happened with tutors, the OU asked students doing tutorials in Lyceum to take part in an induction session, which would introduce them to the various tools of the audiographic system. The intention was also to solve as many technical problems as possible before the start of the course. Not surprisingly, and despite these efforts, the university's central ICT helpdesk was inundated with queries. If any lessons were to be learnt, communication with students had to happen at all times, and adequate ICT support could not be scaled down.

In February 2002, OU language learners who wanted to study German at level 2 (with a suggested entry point at European Language Standards Level B1) were the first cohort ever to have tutorials via Lyceum only. In 2003 the option to do either online or face-to-face sessions was introduced for beginners' French, Spanish and German, gradually followed by all other language courses. By the time *ab initio* Italian was launched in November 2007, however, the OU had already committed to blended tuition: students can no longer choose, but are offered a combination of the two tutorial modes instead.

To evaluate tuition via Lyceum during its first year of presentation, Hampel (2003) observed a tutorial group and collected the impressions of twelve students and six tutors

who volunteered to keep a logbook and complete a questionnaire at the end of the course. For most of them, technical difficulties were one of the major challenges of using the audiographic conferencing tool, and all agreed that, for example, getting disconnected, or having sound problems had a negative impact on their learning/teaching experience. Due to the absence of body language, conversations were found to lack spontaneity, as users struggled to decide on turn-taking or avoid the awkward silences which followed after two people spoke at the same time. It was also noted that shy students were less likely to participate. Others were unhappy about having to do too many things at once (e.g. using the mouse, typing and speaking). The fact that the OU does not enforce attendance at tutorials, and that students cannot always find the time to prepare in-between sessions, often meant that small numbers took part in the online tasks – some also ill-prepared – in which case tutors had to adapt the activities if they were to work well.

In spite of all difficulties, most students and tutors were of the opinion that “using Lyceum had improved the students’ oral communication skills (students: 83.3%, tutors: 83.3%)” (Hampel, 2003: 32). They also agreed that the tool lent itself to authentic communication with other learners at a distance, and was particularly useful for group work. According to tutors, as long as it was thought stimulating and exciting, Lyceum had the potential to increase motivation among students. In addition, the multimodal nature of audiographic conferencing was highlighted as an advantage over written CMC and face-to-face classroom situations. Students not only receive information in different modes, but also efficiently employ different modes while performing a task. Asked to

rate the usefulness of tools in Lyceum, Hampel's volunteers could not have produced more varied answers, their preferences reflecting their diverse learning and teaching styles.

The relevance of Hampel (2003) lies in being the first research article which talks about Lyceum as an integral part of an OU mainstream language course. This is the experience of an educational institution which, after years of probing into the potential of online tuition, commits to audiographic conferencing in order to provide distance language learners with the best opportunities to develop their oral and aural skills. For Hampel, it is therefore paramount that new research builds on lessons learnt in the past, and keeps up with the pace of technological advancements, considering theoretical issues as well as the views of students and tutors.

As Lyceum became a familiar tool for hundreds of language learners and their tutors, researchers at the OU steadily developed an important volume of work, generally combining theory and practice.

#### *2.5.2 Task design for oral interaction via Lyceum*

On the subject of task design, Hauck and Hampel (2005) expand on their previous paper (Hampel & Hauck, 2004) on the pedagogical rationale behind the online activities carried out by learners of German at intermediate level. Having found in earlier pilot projects that Lyceum features "not only allow students to create, modify and edit their own input, but also actually encourage them to do so" (Hauck & Hampel, 2005: 266) thus facilitating their engagement with the learning exercise, task designers were intent

on producing activities which would progressively train students to use the various tools of the system. Besides, helping distance language learners to develop their oral fluency – take risks at the expense of accuracy – remained a prime concern. For that reason, online activities had to be complementary to existing course materials, build on structures and vocabulary already presented in the course, while major tasks were divided into sub-tasks to be covered during two weeks, including two tutor-supported sessions in Lyceum (Hauck & Hampel, 2005). The authors also followed Shield and Hewer's (1999) typology of characteristics of fluency-orientated online tasks, which resulted in

“learners (...) engaged in project work and problem-solving activities designed so that additional online meetings outside the scheduled tutorials need to be arranged to exchange ideas, negotiate solutions, and prepare joint presentations of their work” (Hauck & Hampel, 2005: 267).

This methodology, however, was affected by fluctuating levels of attendance at tutorials, and varying degrees of commitment from students to collaborate with peers outside regular online sessions (also in Hampel, 2003). As a consequence, a bank of single self-contained activities was devised to be at the disposal of tutors, who were then better equipped to deal in extremis with small numbers or unprepared students in class.

Hampel (2006) presents and puts into practice a three-level framework for the development of language tasks in synchronous online environments. First, she revisits theories of SLA, sociocultural and constructivist theories, and multimodality; next, she

explains how the latter informed the design of online tasks via Lyceum in two courses of German at the OU, and examines how well received the tasks were by tutors and students alike. Their feedback allows the author to add to her findings in Hampel (2003) in relation to the experiences of Lyceum users: while we already know about the reluctance of weaker learners to participate in oral interaction, now we learn about students who, possibly linguistically or technically more competent, assume a dominant role in writing tasks. In a similar way, students do not seem to be motivated to attend tutorials when they are not being assessed. And when having few attendees in class, a session which was meant to be tutor-supported becomes tutor-controlled instead, as tasks lose their student-centeredness (Hampel, 2006).

Whereas Hampel (2003), Hampel & Hauck (2004), Hauck & Hampel (2005) and Hampel (2006) report on the design of online tasks for intermediate and advanced language learners, who are assumed to have attained a certain level of proficiency and therefore to be able to perform tasks of a more open nature, Rosell-Aguilar (2005) takes up the challenge of designing activities to foster oral interaction in audiographic conferences among beginners. His premise is that the limited knowledge of structures and vocabulary that beginner learners have, especially as they set out to learn a language, calls for highly structured activities and the use of a larger number of stimuli. Like his colleagues before, Rosell-Aguilar's pedagogical rationale is supported by principles of SLA, CALL and the multimodal character of the online conferencing medium, although he also dissociates himself from the original suggestion that Lyceum is best suited for proficient rather than ab initio learners (Kötter, 2001).

Rosell-Aguilar (2005) designed a format for the tutorials via Lyceum which consisted of an early sound-check as icebreaker, followed by a set of activities for plenary and small group work, and a short few minutes at the end dedicated to questions and administrative issues. The activities – e.g. language games, interviews, role-plays, matching exercises, etc. – start with a presentation of the topic and then elicit the structures and vocabulary to be practised; they are sequenced in a way that consolidates knowledge, and have a cohesive theme. They are conceived to suit Lyceum and not merely replicate face-to-face tasks, and in line with the findings of previous studies, they gradually build up the users' confidence in the operation of the different features of the software, while avoiding making technology the focus of the tutorial. A phase of developmental testing assisted in the identification of issues such as the need for clear instructions, the learners' preference for a document with a tutorial plan, and further updating of Lyceum (e.g. the option of translating the interface to the target language).

### *2.5.3 Learner and tutor impressions revisited*

Throughout the 2003-2004 academic year, Rosell-Aguilar set up a project to gather the students' thoughts on learning a language in Lyceum (Rosell-Aguilar, 2006a), and the tutors' perceptions of their role in teaching via the audiographic tool (Rosell-Aguilar, 2006b; 2007).

In the first part of the article, Rosell-Aguilar (2006a) presents the results of a survey of the whole student population taking the beginners' Spanish course, with the aim of identifying differences between the face-to-face and online cohorts. No significant

disparity was found in gender, age (in a similar study of the student population in the beginners' German course, however, Stickler, Batstone, Duensing & Heins (2005) indicate that the online version is more popular with the under 25 and 30-39 age groups), tutorial attendance, the usefulness of participating in tutorials, or drop out rates. However, a higher number of face-to-face students obtained an overall mark of 85% or above at the end of the course in comparison with Lyceum students. The author thinks this discrepancy is striking, although he also hastens to add that with too many variables at play, it is impossible to declare a direct correlation between course results and tutorial mode.

Next, Rosell-Aguilar surveyed a group of learners whose online tutorials he had observed throughout the tutorial part of the course. The small size of his sample calls for caution in generalizing the findings.

When asked to indicate their reasons to choose the Lyceum-taught version of the course, learners' answers coincide with earlier hypotheses that the audiographic environment would be more convenient in terms of access, more appealing to those who like computers, and more comfortable for those who, afraid of making mistakes in public, would use the screen as a shield (Rosell-Aguilar, 2005).

Whereas two of the seven respondents in Rosell-Aguilar's study considered not seeing other students the least helpful aspect of using the audiographic software for language learning, there were others for whom it was an advantage: one person noted that it "led her to using her listening skills more effectively" (Rosell-Aguilar, 2006a: 257); de los Arcos and Arnedillo Sánchez (2006) explain this further: not having any visual

information on their peers means that learners do not get distracted as easily and tend to concentrate more and listen carefully. For a second respondent, anonymity caused her to feel less intimidated and more confident to take risks (Rosell-Aguilar, 2006a), thus prompting the author to suggest that the way in which learners respond to the absence of non-verbal clues may depend on personal preference and is not an issue of the medium itself.

As in Hampel (2003), learners talk about their frustration at not being able to hear their classmates or not being heard themselves in Lyceum. It seems obvious that this type of technological problem functions as a barrier impeding learners' achievement of the main objective of the tutorial, which is interacting in the target language. In fact, de los Arcos and Arnedillo Sánchez (2006) notice that learners, engaged in a task in the audiographic conference, understand technology and language content as two separate learning experiences, attending to the former before attempting the latter.

Overall, however, "audiographic conferences serve well their purpose of supplying learners with the flexibility to access and benefit from as many opportunities to listen and speak in the target language" (de los Arcos & Arnedillo Sánchez, 2006: 90). All participants in the beginners' study concurred with this, and confirmed having made improvements in their language skills (Rosell-Aguilar, 2006a). For them Lyceum is not a cold environment, but a place where they can feel at ease with their peers (and even make friends), feel part of a group and not isolated, a point which reaffirms previous research that Lyceum can indeed support a community of learners and make the distance in distance education irrelevant (Shield, 2000). Having said that, Rosell-Aguilar



(2006a) is aware that the tutor whose tutorials he observed had a very positive attitude towards Lyceum, and that, just as her students commented on her contribution to the good atmosphere and their enjoyment of the online tutorials, it may have been a very different story had the tutor been more reluctant to embrace the technology.

As a matter of fact, of the eighteen tutors whose impressions Rosell-Aguilar (2006b) sought after tutoring on the beginners' course in Lyceum for a whole year, only two reported not finding the experience positive and not liking the synchronous audiographic tool. Because they all freely opted to teach online, we believe they must have been kindly predisposed to using the technology (and indeed they cite convenience of access, and a desire to expand their skills as reasons for becoming online tutors). What happens when tutors are required under contract to provide tutorial support online, even if not naturally inclined to do so, as is the case with the blended tuition model which the OU has adopted recently, will certainly make a very interesting study.

The thoughts that tutors on the beginners' course share with Rosell-Aguilar (2006b) on tutoring via Lyceum overlap with those of tutors on more advanced courses in Hampel's study three years earlier: namely, feeling constrained by the lack of body language and other paralinguistic clues, dissatisfied with the slowness of online interaction, and thinking that technical issues mar the learning and teaching experience, although the software helps developing students' oral skills.

Not wanting to take anything away from Rosell-Aguilar's work, we feel that he has missed an opportunity to take the OU's research on Lyceum a step forward. He could have easily anticipated that Hampel's findings in relation to tutors' experiences using

the software would be replicated, and thus expand his study, for example, to explore in detail the comings and goings of a tutorial group led by an “unhappy” tutor. This would have added weight to his final statement that “the success of the provision of tutorial support depends both on the individual tutor’s approach and teaching style, and their attitude toward the environment” (Rosell-Aguilar, 2006b: 50), which otherwise appears somewhat subjective.

Hampel and Stickler (2005) are more explicit (and theoretical) in suggesting the skills that language tutors must have in order to function effectively in an online environment, as opposed to a face-to-face setting. As they advocate the notion that skills build on one another, the authors propose the figure of a pyramid, and illustrate each level with reference to Lyceum. At the base, we find basic ICT skills – e.g. tutors knowing how to deal with sound problems. The next two levels are occupied by the technical skills needed to use the specific software – e.g. how to create additional breakout rooms – and familiarity with its constraints and possibilities – e.g. being aware of the effects of the absence of certain visual information, or taking full advantage of multimodality. Higher up are online socialization skills, from following the dos and don’ts of online behaviour to establishing the trust that creating a sense of community in the classroom entails. Next, the online language tutor must develop skills that facilitate communicative competence, for example asking students to take their turn as soon as the previous speaker finishes, instead of waiting to be offered the floor. Creativity and choice follow in hierarchy – OU tutors who are provided with the materials to work with at tutorials may not want to be as creative as task designers, but they still have to have good

judgement to adapt the tasks to the circumstances of their own group. Finally, at the apex of Hampel and Stickler's pyramid is the tutors' own teaching style, developed in time as they feel more comfortable in the system, "using the media and materials to their best advantage, forming a rapport with his or her students and using the resources creatively to promote active and communicative language learning" (Hampel & Stickler, 2005: 319).

For Rosell-Aguilar (2007) the tutors' own style becomes more essential in an online environment than in the face-to-face classroom. In his study of how tutors of Spanish perceive their roles online in comparison with teaching in a face-to-face setting, his respondents emphasize the differences in terms of emotional support: it is the ubiquitous reference to the absence of physical contact that makes it more difficult for them to create a relaxed atmosphere in a Lyceum tutorial, a feeling of trust and belonging on which to build a more personal relationship with the students. This duty to know how to convey warmth when you cannot come in the door with a big smile on your face motivates Rosell-Aguilar (2007) to call for tutor training to focus on the social aspects of tutoring. When Stickler and Hampel (2007) evaluate the implementation of a tutor training programme based on the framework they introduced in Hampel and Stickler (2005), they invite online tutors of German to suggest ways of improving the training provided. Among the responses also features a request to concentrate more on how to make students feel at ease in Lyceum.

Hence, both Rosell-Aguilar (2007) and Stickler and Hampel (2007) endorse that institutions involved in online teaching should not simply be content in the knowledge

that their staff are technically literate, but offer training that looks to “online socialization of communities of learners and the languages specific need for facilitating communicative competence” (Hampel & Stickler, 2005: 323). It is paramount, though, that tutors themselves approve of this type of training and engage in reflective practice (Hampel & Stickler, 2005). A good example of this is the action research conducted independently by one OU language tutor who, in her first year of tuition in Lyceum, was concerned about the effect that not being able to see her students would have on classroom interaction (de los Arcos & Arnedillo Sánchez, 2006). Her comments that she found herself doing what she knew well should not be done in a communicative lesson (for example, grabbing control of turns in conversation, falling back too often on the L1, or commanding rather than guiding her students) give relevance to the point that findings on best practice should reach “those who need to be aware of them” (Hampel & Stickler, 2005: 323) or, as we understand it, the tutors.

According to Hampel and Stickler (2005), more research is needed to contribute to the development of best practice in online tuition, among others in areas such as tutors’ understanding of the different interaction patterns of online and face-to-face communication.

#### *2.5.4 Interaction and multimodality*

Despite a common view among researchers that the differences in teaching and learning in a face-to-face setting and a synchronous audiographic environment such as Lyceum are too great for comparison (Kötter, 2001; de los Arcos & Arnedillo Sánchez, 2006), and

that each mode requires its own pedagogy (Hampel & Stickler, 2005), Stickler, Batstone, Duensing and Heins (2005), Duensing, Stickler, Batstone and Heins (2006), and Heins, Duensing, Stickler and Batstone (2007) conducted a study which contrasts the level of interpersonal interaction in both types of language tutorials at the OU.

Concerned about establishing whether or not social interaction occurs in the online medium as strongly as in the face-to-face classroom (Duensing et al., 2006), they collected and analyzed data from three groups of beginner students of German (two attending tutorials in Lyceum, and a third face-to-face), led by three different tutors. They conclude that spoken interaction is just as healthy in both tutorial modes, although divergent with regard to student participation, the use of L1 and L2, and the degree of tutor control (Heins et al., 2007). In our opinion, some of their claims have a clear explanation: for example, Heins et al. (2007) find that online tutors talk more than their face-to-face counterparts and tend to keep a tighter control on classroom management. In relation to this, de los Arcos & Arnedillo Sánchez (2006) perceive that the tutor at the centre of their investigations (also in charge of a beginner group of language learners) increased her verbal input to compensate for the lack of physical presence, and that, while her pivotal role in communication could be regarded as dominating, it also served the purpose of easing the students' transition from L1 to L2. De los Arcos and Arnedillo Sánchez (2006) add that this was the case at the beginning of the tutorial season, and that as all participants in the audiographic conference grew accustomed to the system, the tutor adopted a more hands-off approach which resulted in her talking less, and the students having more control over the interaction. It is worth emphasizing that this is an

observation made by one tutor who, like all her colleagues whose views have been reported in research to date, had just started leading tutorials in Lyceum. Whether confidence and experience do change the teaching style of tutors deserves a longitudinal study, so far only a promise in Stickler and Hampel (2007).

The most serious critical remarks that can be made about the research reported in Stickler et al. (2005), Duensing et al. (2006) and Heins et al. (2007) derive from an incomplete appraisal of the multimodal nature of audiographic conferences and its effect on spoken interaction. We are aware of their clarification that they restrict their analysis to spoken communication due to the complexity of interaction (Heins et al., 2007), but we also believe that in Lyceum spoken output cannot be isolated from its context of production, supported in Lamy's claim that "interacting means exercising competence not only in matters of language but also over all the tools brought into play in the particular communication context" (Lamy, 2004: 523).

Lamy (2004) asserts that in a synchronous voice-based audiographic environment, while language learners perform an oral task they also interact with the computer. She draws from Erben's (1999) research into how a group of trainee teachers of languages interacted using an audiographic tool, wherein the technology was found to have an impact on the discourse practice – e.g. not being able to assess others' body language meant that participants did not engage in as many interpersonal exchanges, and increased repetition, comprehension checks and similar discourse strategies. Lamy (2004) looks at examples of learner-learner interaction in Lyceum and its predecessor, VoxChat to illustrate how these virtual environments can mould meaning-making

behaviour, before highlighting the methodological challenges posed as L2 competence is redefined.

In 2005 the Open University worked in partnership with the Université de Franche-Comté in the project CoPéAs (Communication Pédagogique en environnements orientés Audio-synchrones) “to compile and analyze a multimodal online corpus of learner-teacher interactions” (Lewis, 2006: 583). For ten weeks, fourteen French-speaking students, taking English for Specific Purposes as part of a Masters degree in open and distance learning, participated in eight sessions of one to one and a half hours’ duration in Lyceum, in which they discussed a framework for the evaluation of educational websites through the use of English. The CoPéAs project produced a number of research articles written separately by researchers in the UK and France. Three of these papers (Vetter & Chanier, 2006; Lamy, 2007; Ciekanski & Chanier, 2008) advance the work of Lamy (2004) in relation to the representation of the interplay between conventional and technological competences, and our understanding of how multimodality influences L2 learning.

Vetter and Chanier (2006) analyzed student interaction using the audio and text chat facilities in Lyceum. Concerned with producing an accurate measure of student participation in both modes, they recorded the audio, screen actions and chat logs generated during the CoPéAs sessions and transcribed them in unprecedented detail, attending, for example, to audio turns and their start time, the duration of pauses, intertwined with chat turns and comments of what occurs on screen.

Working with a highly heterogeneous group of false beginners, both in terms of linguistic level and linguistic experience, the authors anticipated that being able to communicate in one or the other modality would help learners regain the self-confidence lost after years of not having spoken English. They found that the use of audio or chat was a matter of personal preference rather than proficiency in the target language, and that those learners who did not like the chat communicated through audio more often, and vice versa. As one modality compensated for the other, Vetter and Chanier (2006) emphasize that it was the choice offered by the multimodal environment which made it possible for these learners to hold a professional conversation.

Lamy (2007) seeks to appreciate “how to promote multimodal conversation as a legitimate learning activity of the electronically literate” (Lamy, 2007: 385). As in Vetter and Chanier (2006), her starting point is a full account of CoPéAs students interacting not only with their fellow students, but also with their computers, which required the representation of every keystroke to capture the learners’ input processing (typing, deleting, retyping, etc). She puts forward a synergy of conversation analysis (sequentiality and face management), social semiotics (impact of materiality on conversations) and geosemiotics (users choose different spaces for conversations) as an emerging methodology for the analysis of language learners’ interaction in multimodal environments such as Lyceum.

Ciekanski and Chanier (2008) propose yet another methodological approach, derived from the Ethnography of Communication, in which particular attention is given to the



perspectives of tutors and learners and the learning context. Their study follows on from Vetter and Chanier (2006) but focuses on how the same groups of false beginners in the CoPéAs project use multimodality to accomplish a collaborative writing task. We believe that the originality of this research lies in the fact that the authors analyze patterns of interaction looking to see whether actions and modalities (e.g. audio, text chat, vote) may be systematically matched. This allows them to observe that learners engaged in a collective writing task often switch modalities, in what the researchers call multimodal scaffolding. Multimodal scaffolding, according to Ciekanski and Chanier (2008), encourages metacognitive strategies (learners focus on the writing process rather than the end product), and also communicative strategies (learners use one modality or another to sustain communication).

Hampel and Hauck (2006) and Hampel (2007) look at multimodality in the context of language teaching and learning not from the perspective of analyzing interaction but to explore the demands that a multimodal environment puts on its users. The same as researchers in the CoPéAs project, they conceive that CMC, as a learning space, cannot replicate the face-to-face classroom if the meaning-making affordances and modes of the computer are taken into consideration. "It is important to become familiar with [the computer's] functionalities and build up an awareness of what these afford the user, thus developing the skills necessary for successful deployment of the resources" (Hampel, 2007: 35). This is the core of the newly-termed 'new literacies', a combination of technical competences and the ability to immerse oneself in the electronic medium to

the extent that its constraints and possibilities become second nature to the user, able to engage creatively and critically with the environment (Hampel, 2007).

In this way, the challenges that tutors and learners face to develop as electronically literate are not insignificant. Apart from familiarizing themselves with the technology, they need to learn to represent meaning in more than one mode at a time, understand each mode and how to use different modes constructively, while remaining aware of intercultural values and the affective demands of new media (Hampel & Hauck, 2006). Hampel and Hauck (2006) and Hampel (2007) agree that to be competent users of a multimodal environment such as Lyceum, learners need to be supported by task designers and tutors. Hampel (2007: 50) calls to mind her argument in Hampel (2006) that the design of tasks must be informed by the potential of the medium and the learners' needs, and "reflect the affordances of the modes available as well as building up learner confidence and guide them towards taking control of the environment". In promoting tutor training to relinquish that very same control and realize the democratic disposition of the medium, both Hampel and Hauck (2006) and Hampel (2007) point to Hampel and Stickler's (2005) study on tutor skills.

During the autumn of 2005, another international collaboration linked learners of French at the OU and Carnegie Mellon University (USA), with native francophone students at the Université de Franche-Comté. During the ten weeks of the pilot project, named Tridem, twenty five students from the three institutions communicated with one another and reflected on their cultural differences and similarities in a series of collaborative tasks, using two online learning spaces, one synchronous (Lyceum), the other

asynchronous (blogs). Researchers collected quantitative and qualitative data to investigate the extent to which these two multimodal environments influenced task design and learner interaction, and consider some of the factors that contribute to the success or failure of telecollaboration projects (Hauck, 2007; Hauck & Youngs, 2008).

Among the latter, Hauck (2007) focuses on discrepancies in the linguistic competence of participants, the disparity in their awareness of the different affordances of the electronic tools, affective variables (which will be taken up in more detail in the next section) and their gain in cultural knowledge. She observes, for instance, how, even though learners were allowed to use the L1 and L2 in their exchanges, students from Carnegie Mellon University reported feeling inferior to their partners and anxious when meeting in Lyceum, which led to decreased motivation, and their participation in the project being perceived by others as a matter of duty.

Despite an overall positive evaluation of the pilot and its success in helping some learners increase their cultural knowledge, Hauck (2007) explains that looking at the imbalance of contributions to the blogs (very low from users in the USA in comparison with their French counterparts), and how little time was spent informally in Lyceum, Tridem may be considered an example of 'failed communication'. As she weighs her findings against the problem areas in telecollaboration identified by O'Dowd and Ritter (2006), she exposes the high risk factors that affected the project and that should guide the efforts of those thinking of setting up a similar exchange.

The author concludes that it is the convergence of various interrelated aspects which determines the positive or negative outcome of telecollaborative ventures. She insists

that the greatest level of difficulty resides in addressing learners' lack of self-knowledge and self-management skills, and multimodal communicative competence, two areas that so far remain under-researched.

For over a decade, studies at the OU's Department of Languages into the use of synchronous audiographic online learning environments in the context of distance language learning have been governed by the overarching theme of how to make Lyceum successful for students. They have mainly covered issues concerning task design, the experiences of tutors and learners, training and multimodality. The avenues of enquiry opened by early scholarship have not only been explored but also expanded. However, in the case of affect, which occupies the next section of this review, less research has so far been undertaken.

#### *2.5.5 Affect in Lyceum*

The near-absence of research regarding affective issues in the use of synchronous audiographic conferences for language teaching and learning is certainly tangible. Most of the studies we have reviewed hitherto devote very little space to explicit discussions of affect.

Early trials conducted by OU scholars with volunteers reported on the potential of Lyceum and its forerunner to reduce the isolation of distance learners, for whom inhabiting a virtual learning space and feeling part of an online community compared

equally to the support of face-to-face groups (Shield & Hewer, 1999; Shield & Rodine, 1999; Shield, 2000).

From the beginning, researchers have been most curious about the effect of not being able to see other participants in the conference. On the one hand, findings indicated that interaction faltered when learners were unsure of their turns in conversation, causing uncomfortable silences; talking to a disembodied voice provoked anxiety and lowered motivation, especially among weaker students (Kötter et al., 1999; Kötter & Shield, 2000; Kötter, 2001; Hampel, 2003; 2006; Hauck, 2007). However, the opposite was also found to be true: unable to be seen, shy characters would contribute more as, protected by the screen, they felt better equipped to take risks secure in the knowledge that they would not be making fools of themselves (Kötter, 2001; Hampel & Baber, 2003; Rosell-Aguilar, 2005; de los Arcos & Arnedillo Sánchez, 2006). Hauck (2007) sums up this divergence of experiences: half of the participants in the Tridem project thought that ‘not seeing or not being seen by other learners’ had no effect on them, a fifth regarded it as an advantage, while the least linguistically competent explained it made them feel more anxious.

According to Hampel & Stickler (2005) the lack of body language also influences classroom management. They do not state that students feel more nervous taking part in audiographic conferences than in face-to-face settings, but observe that tutors have to work harder at creating a sense of community and trust that makes students at ease in the online environment. In relation to this, de los Arcos and Arnedillo Sánchez (2006) invite tutors to provide a running commentary on what they are doing in Lyceum (for instance, when opening a new module, or writing on the text chat) to counteract what

they call the emotional wasteland of the system, the void that seems to surround users when nobody speaks. Furthermore, they recommend that learners get feedback on how well they are using the different tools, so as to minimize the anxiety that the technology itself may induce.

Hampel & Hauck (2004) point out that warm-up exercises for audiographic sessions are crucial as they help students to get to know each other in a setting where peer contact is very much limited to an anonymous voice. Rosell-Aguilar (2005), also referring to the planning of tutorials via Lyceum, explains that he decided to provide beginner learners with a lesson plan, consisting of an outline of the activities to participate in during the tutorial and a summary of the language to be practised, in order to reduce anxiety.

Some studies delve deeper into affective issues, although not necessarily treating them as their main or only concern. Lewis (2006), for example, presents us with a rare look at teachers' rather than learners' feelings. He reflects on his own experience as a newcomer to e-teaching: how he felt distressed to realize that "all the classroom management skills I had acquired over the years suddenly counted for nothing" (Lewis, 2006: 591); how his keeping a journal functioned as a means of stress management, although he felt "ill at ease" when asked to share his private thoughts in a discussion forum; and how embarrassment crept in when accepting some of the technical advice of his "critical friend".

In Hampel, Felix, Hauck and Coleman (2005) students of German at Monash University (Australia) and the OU collaborated on the topic of *Identities in Contemporary Germany* over a period of 12 weeks in which they had regular meetings in the OU's audiographic

conferencing tool. Through questionnaires, participants indicated their awareness of the affective variables of successful language learning, further prompting the authors to explore anxiety. The task design tried to make constructive use of the anonymity of the environment to give learners “more freedom to make mistakes thus contributing to reducing learner inhibition and language anxiety” (Hampel et al., 2005: 11). Yet, paradoxically, most students reported feeling anxious, independently of their proficiency in the language, due to having to communicate without the usual visual information. Tutors received the lack of body language unfavourably too. In one case their anxiety was brought about by their unfamiliarity with the tools, a feeling that they were operating in a void, and interestingly, a concern that their students were chatting rather than learning properly. Thus, Hampel and her colleagues conclude that “the loss of embodiment may be experienced as both liberating and restricting”, in tune with previous research, and that “performance anxiety appears to depend not simply on linguistic proficiency or ICT-literacy but rather on psycho-social factors and the learning context” (Hampel et al., 2005: 26).

Partially informed by the findings in Hampel et al. (2005), Hauck (2007) questioned partners in the Tridem project about the perceived features of successful language learning. A majority selected enthusiasm and motivation, willingness to communicate, and ability to assess one’s weaknesses and strengths as the most important. The researcher’s claim is that affective variables, metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive skills such as self-management play a decisive role in learning a language at a distance via CMC, a recurrent theme of her investigations.

As early as 2002, fourteen OU learners of German at advanced level participated in five online sessions during which they reflected on the process of language learning in a virtual environment, while engaged in activities aimed at helping them become better online learners (Hauck, 2005). The purpose of the project was to enhance their metacognitive knowledge (MCK) and increase their metacognitive strategy (MCS) use.

Hauck borrows Wenden's definition of metacognitive knowledge – "the part of long-term memory that contains what learners know about learning" (Wenden 2001: 45) – and focuses on her description of person knowledge, "the influence of cognitive and affective factors such as age, language aptitude, personality and motivation, on learning in general and one's own learning experience in particular" (Hauck, 2005: 66). The author also adopts Wenden's (1998: 519) explication of metacognitive skills as "general skills through which learners manage, direct, regulate, guide their learning", and manifests the particular relevance of self-management skills, in concurrence with White (2003). Let us be reminded that White was quoted previously in this review advocating the pressing need that distance language learners have to understand and manage themselves and their learning. For Hauck (2005) this urgency applies equally to language learners in online self-directed learning spaces and she adds that "the degree to which language learners are aware of both themselves (...) and of the affordances of the learning environment, and the degree to which they demonstrate control and flexibility in the use of MCSs such as self-management and thus autonomy, are interdependent" (Hauck, 2005: 68-69). In her view, learners with a high level of MCK are



also efficient in deploying self-management skills, that is, they are aware of how they learn best, and able to set up the learning conditions most favourable to them.

A second case study replicates the scenario of the project in 2002: in October 2003, before the start of the OU academic year, thirty seven students of German and Spanish at beginner level, from both the online and face-to-face strands of the courses, attended a day school and, as before, worked on activities designed to foster learner self-awareness (Hauck, 2005; Hauck & Hurd, 2005). The data gathered in questionnaires and interviews served to substantiate two hypotheses: that “instructed self-management skills contribute to an increase in learners’ self and contextual knowledge”, and also “help distance learners to deal with affective factors such as language anxiety in both face-to-face and virtual learning contexts” (Hauck & Hurd, 2005: np). Raising learners’ self-awareness is equivalent to building up their self-esteem and influencing their self-efficacy and achievement beliefs. Those who believe in their effectiveness as learners, certain to master the necessary skills, set themselves higher learning goals and are determined to succeed regardless of the obstacle, be it of a linguistic, technical or affective nature (Hauck & Hurd, 2005; Hampel & Hauck, 2006).

The final research article that remains to be reviewed is, to the best of our knowledge, the only study of anxiety exclusively in the context of language learning in synchronous audiographic conferences. De los Arcos, Coleman and Hampel (2009) set out to investigate the nature of anxiety in these online settings, and the extent to which it is triggered by the medium itself. They interviewed seven OU learners of Spanish at beginner and post-beginner level who attended regular tutorials in Lyceum. While the

small numbers may be considered a limitation of the project, these conversations provided a substantial amount of data to allow the authors to adopt a highly innovative methodological approach. Following a constructionist model, they proposed applying discursive psychology to the study of anxiety, whereby emotions are no longer cognitive representations but discourse practices, meaning created in interaction between speaker and hearer. Hence, anxiety is no longer a psychological state but a social construct.

Their findings reveal a strong connection between beliefs and emotion. As in Hurd (2006), de los Arcos et al. (2009) observe that distance language learners have a very good understanding of what makes a good language learner, and thus enter the L2 classroom with a ready-made set of beliefs and expectations about not only their role, but also the role of the tutor. In emotion talk, they justify to themselves and others how far they are able to fulfill that role: for example not pronouncing correctly sets off feelings of frustration, lack of preparation time results in students getting nervous. The authors endorse Hauck and Hurd's (2005) argument that learners' self-management skills, which also include being able to control their emotions, can help reduce anxiety, but add that "it is judging that your behaviour as a language learner coincides with what you believe is expected of a language learner which indicates the absence of anxiety" (de los Arcos et al., 2009).

Furthermore, as emotions are context-specific, awareness of the learning context comes to the fore. Speaking in a real life situation is different from speaking in Lyceum; when learners realize the rules of the virtual setting, performance anxiety is substituted by a nervous excitement which is generated within the medium itself.

In summary, we have seen that researchers in the field of second language acquisition have studied affect within the confines of individual differences in traditional, distance and computer-assisted settings. Perhaps with the exception of anxiety, however, research on everyday emotions, understood as incorporating phenomenological experiences, cognitive appraisal and some form of coping, remains largely ignored.

## Chapter 3

### Methodology

#### *3.1 Introduction*

One of the earliest decisions researchers must contemplate concerns the choice of the appropriate research method for their project. Setting aside practical considerations such as personal inclination or support and resources available, Dörnyei (2007) invites us to refer to our research question as a starting point, since the best method will be the one that answers it most efficiently. In the light of psychologists having extensively studied the appraisal determinants of discrete emotions using questionnaires, it made sense for us to follow the exact quantitative method of inquiry. Thus, we designed and piloted an online questionnaire (see Appendix 1) which was sent to a large number of Open University language students, asking them about the emotions they felt during a tutorial in Lyceum, and to appraise events leading to regret and pride. However, as we sought to achieve an understanding of the experience of the emotion from the learners' personal point of view, and to see how they verbalized its elicitation, interviews were conducted with a sample of volunteers from the questionnaire respondents. The aim was to find out about their thoughts, feelings and actions during the events that caused them to feel regretful and/or proud. Our methodological orientation was therefore a mixed method, combining quantitative and qualitative paradigms at the data collection and data analysis stages of our project.

### 3.2 Questionnaires

#### 3.2.1 *Why Roseman's questionnaire?: methodological issues of appraisal studies*

Quantitative or statistical research is primarily characterized by being systematic: highly structured, it relies on a procedural set of rules which advance the study in a logical manner; it uses quantifiable data and it is replicable; and it is reductive in its search for patterns amid the confusion of facts in everyday reality (Brown, 1988). Questionnaires are the quantitative research tool par excellence, which Brown (2001: 6) defines as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”. Their popularity in the social sciences can be explained by their potentiality to reach large numbers of people; if the questionnaire is well-constructed, this substantial amount of information collected in a relative short period can be easily processed, thus saving time, effort and financial resources (Dörnyei, 2003b).

In the field of cognition and emotion, studies on research methodology indicate that the variety of research topics and research methods often means that it is the specialized topic which calls upon a particular methodology (Parrott & Hertel, 1999). The standard approach for studying appraisals and emotions consists of asking subjects to recall emotional experiences, describe them in their own words and complete a questionnaire designed to measure their appraisals (Roseman et al., 1996). As explained in the rationale, the present study follows Roseman's theory of emotion; accordingly, our data collection instrument was devised to match very closely the appraisal dimensions, item description and scale anchors of Roseman's most recent questionnaire (Roseman, 2001)

(see Table 3.1). The reason for this lies in our appreciation of the psychologist's rigour in empirically grounding his theory by testing not only his own hypotheses linking particular appraisals to particular emotions, but also those of rival researchers. As a result, we are of the opinion that his is one of the most comprehensive and at the same time integrative theories of discrete emotions.

Furthermore, as his theory has been revised and expanded by means of the formulation of new hypotheses and re-examination of old ones, his later research avoids the methodological pitfalls of previous research. For example, while Roseman's (1984) original investigations of the appraisal-emotion relationships asked subjects about hypothetical emotional events, in which case the emotional response was inferred rather than actually felt, Roseman et al. (1990) favoured gathering data on real emotion experiences. A second problem emerged in research by Smith and Ellsworth (1985) where subjects were instructed to report on appraisals made while feeling an emotion. In this respect, Roseman et al. (1990: 903) point out that "one's thoughts during an emotion experience may be quite different from the thoughts that caused the emotion". In this light, they recommend that subjects are asked to rate appraisals leading to an emotional response, rather than the cognitive content of the experience (Roseman et al., 1990; Roseman et al., 1996).

In addition, as pointed out by Parkinson and Manstead (1992), all retrospective studies are vulnerable to two other methodological objections: recollections of emotions may be, on the one hand, distorted by memory; on the other, they may be culturally biased. Roseman et al. (1996) do not refute the first of these complaints and note that the

**Table 3.1** Appraisal Dimensions and Stems and Scale Anchors for Items Measuring Appraisals

Dimension	Item and scale anchors
Unexpectedness	<i>The event being expected (1) to The event being unexpected (9).</i> <i>Thinking of the event as something unfamiliar (1) to Thinking of the event as something familiar (9).</i> <i>Thinking of the event as something that was not novel (1) to Thinking of the event as something that was novel (9).</i>
Situational state	<i>Thinking that the event was inconsistent with what I wanted (1) to Thinking that the event was consistent with what I wanted (9).</i> <i>The event being very much wanted by me (1) to The event being very much unwanted by me (9).</i> <i>Believing that the event improved things (1) to Believing that the event made things worse (9).</i>
Motivational state	<i>Wanting to get or keep something pleasurable (1) to Wanting to get rid of or avoid something painful (9).</i> <i>Wanting to minimise some cost in the event (1) to Wanting to maximise some benefit in the event (9).</i> <i>My seeking less of something negative during the event (1) to My seeking more of something positive during the event (9).</i>
Probability	<i>Being unable to predict what was going to happen in this situation (1) to Being able to predict what was going to happen in this situation (9).</i> <i>Being certain about the consequences of the event (1) to Being uncertain about the consequences of the event (9).</i> <i>Being not at all in doubt about something that mattered to me (1) to Being very much in doubt about something that mattered to me (9).</i>
Agency	
Self	<i>Thinking that the event was not all caused by me (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by me (9).</i>
Other	<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused by someone else (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by someone else (9).</i>
Circumstances	<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control (9).</i>
Control potential	<i>Thinking that there would not be anything I could do about the event (1) to Thinking that there might be something I could do about the event (9).</i> <i>Believing that I could not have an effect on the event now or in the future (1) to Believing that I could have an effect on the event now or in the future (9).</i> <i>Thinking that I did not have the potential to influence the situation (1) to Thinking that I did still have the potential to influence the situation (9).</i>
Problem type	<i>The event facilitated or obstructed a goal (1) to The event was intrinsically positive or negative (9).</i> <i>The event was wanted or unwanted because of its effects (1) to The event was itself wanted or unwanted (9).</i> <i>The event helped or hindered my needs, plans or goals (1) to The event was positive or negative independent of my evaluation (9).</i>

*Note:* This table is based on Roseman et al. (1996) and Roseman (2001).

observation of appraisal-emotion relationships takes account of the possibility that subjects fail to recall appraisals accurately or omit the true cause of the emotion. Indeed, here may be found an obstacle to a more precise prediction as to which appraisals determine which emotions. As to the concern that recollections may be culturally scripted, they respond that even studies of ongoing appraisals may be subject to much the same bias. Also the evidence reported in cross-cultural research that the elicitors of emotions do not differ widely from culture to culture, language to language, etc (for instance, Wallbott and Scherer, 1988; Mauro et al., 1992; Roseman et al., 1995; Mesquita & Ellsworth, 2001) help undo this claim. In fact, although results across methodologies and cultures converge, no method employed to study the appraisal determinants of emotions is without drawbacks. We can blame research conducted in a laboratory for its lack of generalisability to real life experiences. This generalisability, however, characterizes retrospective studies, whose weakness, in turn, can be associated with memory failure on the part of participants. Data collected during social interactions avoid such inaccuracies, but may still be reporting the altered appraisal processes of self-conscious subjects (Roseman et al., 1996).

### *3.2.2 Piloting*

As said by Dörnyei (2007), the psychometric quality of quantitative studies makes piloting an integral part of the research exercise. The central purpose of piloting is to find out how respondents will answer the questionnaire, and highlight problems in its content and/or form – ambiguous wording, clarity of instructions, difficult items, overall



appearance, length of time it takes to complete, etc. (Brown, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003b). Valuable feedback is to be gained also from analyzing the pilot results, all in pursuit of an instrument that will finally work as intended when used in the main study.

An urgent concern was identified in setting up the study, which underlined the importance of piloting the appraisal-emotion questionnaire: the wide geographic distribution of the sample who would be surveyed in the main study and the number of participants it would involve led to the decision of the researcher to opt for a self-administered questionnaire (completed whenever and wherever respondents wished) as opposed to the group-administered type (handed out to groups of individuals all at the same time). Immediately, it became clear that we would have to contend with the prospect of a low response rate, no control over the conditions under which the questionnaire was filled out, and more critically, no on-the-spot clarification in case of confusion (Brown, 2001). For this reason, piloting had to serve as a guarantee that the questionnaire was completely self-contained and self-explanatory.

Studies in research methodology advise that the pilot project is carried out with a group of participants as similar as possible to the target sample (Brown, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003b; 2007). In August 2007, the researcher, a part-time tutor in Spanish with the Open University, taught at Residential School in Santiago de Compostela, Spain, where OU students of Spanish at intermediate level attend an intensive week of language learning, as a compulsory component of their course.

At that stage, the appraisal-emotion questionnaire consisted of two parts on two double-sided pages. In the first section, two background/classification questions asked subjects

to indicate what course they were studying at the time (Lyceum or face-to-face), and to check on a Likert-scale how often they attended tutorials – never, seldom, occasionally, mostly or always. The same descriptors were used in the next item which asked how often during a tutorial subjects felt each of the seventeen discrete emotions with a specified appraisal pattern: surprise, anger, relief, dislike towards someone, pride, fear, sadness, distress, affection towards someone, disgust, frustration, regret, contempt, joy, guilt, shame and hope (Roseman, 2001). These emotions were arranged in random order. The second part replicated the most recent version of Roseman's questionnaire (Roseman et al., 1996; Roseman, 2001). Subjects were asked to take a few minutes to think of a time when they felt one of the emotions listed in the previous item, and write out what happened on the occasion to enhance the recall of the experience. Roseman et al. (1990) were alerted to the need to focus subjects on appraisals of the specific part of the experience that led to a given emotion, after observing in piloting that some of the reported emotional episodes involved several emotions, each with their own appraisal determinants. To this end, subjects were asked to specify what was in the situation they described that caused them to feel that particular emotion. Once the eliciting event was established, they rated the extent to which each of the hypothesized appraisals caused the emotion. Three items were formulated to measure each appraisal dimension – unexpectedness, situational estate, motivational estate, probability, agency, control potential and problem type. Yet, while Roseman used an uneven number of response options, we preferred a 4-point scale, in order to deny respondents a sit-on-the-fence category (Brown, 2001; Dörnyei, 2003b).

The questionnaire was administered to two groups of students who were tutored by the researcher in two consecutive weeks at Residential School. Each group included twelve students, male and female, from both strands of tuition, that is to say, face-to-face or online.

In the first week, students were given the appraisal-emotion questionnaire on Sunday (summer school normally starts on a Saturday evening) to be collected on Friday. It then needed to be filled out outside classroom times. They were also told the questionnaire was being piloted by their tutor as part of a project on emotion and language learning. Out of the twelve questionnaires that were handed out, ten were returned at the end of the week, two of them unanswered – one claimed never to attend tutorials, the other not to have felt any emotion at all during tutorials, as reasons for not completing the questionnaire. All eight questionnaires returned had both section one and two filled in, although one person remarked that they found section two confusing. Questionnaire completion time averaged about fifteen minutes.

In the second week, students were given the appraisal-emotion questionnaire in class as a pre-test, not knowing that it was being piloted. All twelve questionnaires handed out were collected, two of them unanswered – subjects declared never attending tutorials. Out of the ten completed questionnaires, ten answered section one, but only seven answered section two. Five of these seven said that section two was unclear and difficult to understand, and they did not fill in all appraisal items. The three students who did not answer section two explained that this was because they did not understand it, were annoyed at the whole questionnaire, and could not recall a specific time when they felt

any emotion. As with the group in the previous week, it took students approximately fifteen minutes to do the questionnaire.

Several issues arose from piloting. It was observed that the first group of students had considerably less difficulty answering the appraisal items in the questionnaire than their counterparts in the second week. Since the researcher had indeed had some concern about the complexity of some of the questions, she was not surprised by this outcome and speculated that the first group of students may have been under the halo effect (Dörnyei, 2003b). The excellent relationship between them and the tutor/researcher in class may have made the students disinclined to say anything negative about the questionnaire. Because of the experience of students in the second group, it was then decided to use single instead of multiple items to measure each appraisal, in an effort to make the questionnaire less confusing and more manageable. A precedent existed in van Dijk and Zeelenberg's (2002) study of the appraisal patterns of regret and disappointment: also adopting Roseman's (1996) approach, they employed dimensions measured by one single item for reasons of convenience, and obtained results that were equally significant.

The pilot study highlighted problems in the wording of the instruction that required students to recall an emotional event. It read *Take a few minutes to remember a time when you felt one of the above emotions. Then write the story of what happened on that occasion.* As it clearly did not request subjects to specify the main emotion of their narratives, in some cases this was inconveniently left to be inferred by the reader. Also, by giving them the option to choose openly from the list of discrete emotions to recall any they felt during a

tutorial, we hoped to obtain a collection of stories across the whole emotional spectrum. Instead, the number of people recalling an instance when they felt a negative emotion (namely frustration, anger, regret, dislike towards someone, fear and distress) was double the recollections of positive episodes (pride and joy). However, if we looked at what emotions students said they mostly felt during tutorials, then the ratio was almost on a par, with 13 to 12 in favour of negative emotions. This confirmed that our expectations of a variety of tales were at the least naïve, given the fact that there is a tendency to associate emotion with negativity (Khor & Nash, 2007). We sought to address these problems by focusing on two emotions, pride and regret, informed by the considerations that follow.

While positive emotions are said to facilitate the process of language learning, negative feelings can compromise it (Arnold & Brown, 1999). The Oxford Dictionary of English defines pride as “1. a feeling of deep pleasure or satisfaction derived from achievements, qualities or possessions; 2. the quality of having an excessively high opinion of oneself”. The first meaning has recognizable positive connotations, the second suggests the opposite. Regret, however, is clearly negative – “a feeling of sorrow, repentance or disappointment”. In the context of language learning, we find the *achievement* of pride and the *disappointment* of regret most interesting. Let’s think of a plausible scenario: we do well in a exam, we feel proud; we have little time to prepare, go to class but do not speak, we feel we could have done more and regret our behaviour. Appraisal theory claims that emotions are elicited by evaluations of events and situations in relation to a person’s goals, needs or concerns (Roseman & Smith, 2001). The pride and regret of the

distance language learner show a definite connection between emotions and beliefs (de los Arcos et al., 2009), one that we were keen to examine in this project.

In addition, we were concerned not to subject participants to conditions producing intense emotions, or to deceive them about the presence of such conditions – both types of conduct deemed to be unethical in emotion research (Parrott & Hertel, 1999). In this regard, we estimated that neither pride nor regret, understood as everyday occurrences, posed a risk for anyone involved in the study – we deal with ethics in more detail in a separate section of this chapter. Besides, since emotion is per se a sensitive topic, we were unsure about how freely our subjects would talk about their feelings, and how socially safe it was to talk particularly about pride and regret. In 2006 the Social Issues Research Centre (SIRC) at Oxford University were commissioned to draw up a report on the emotional state of Britain as a nation (Khor & Nash, 2007). Adopting an approach which perceived emotion as something innate in human beings, but the expression of emotion as a matter of experience and the rules of social reality, the report concluded that the British emotional default is not one of happiness, that they do like ‘a good moan’ but are fundamentally wary about expressing their real feelings, preferring to bottle them up, and only when given a safe outlet people are likely to talk about how they feel. With this in mind, we took care that the present study felt safe for participants: the objectives were explained and what was expected of them, they were assured that they could withdraw at any time with no adverse consequences, that the results would be kept secure until they were destroyed a year after completion of the project and never

released to any third party, and that students' anonymity and confidentiality would be protected at all times.

### 3.2.3 Materials

The final version of the questionnaire (see Appendix 1) consisted of two parts. In the first section, subjects were asked to indicate the course they studied, how often they attended online tutorials, and how confident they felt using the OU's audiographic conferencing system. The descriptors for these two Likert-scale questions were *never*, *sometimes* – which resulted from merging *seldom* and *occasionally* after piloting – *mostly* and *always*. Next, subjects rated how often during an online tutorial they felt each of the seventeen discrete emotions presented in random order. The second part of the questionnaire comprised the appraisal section. Each subject was asked to recall two emotion experiences in connection with an online tutorial, one of pride and another of regret. For each of them, they had to write out a brief description of what happened as a means to help them relive the situation. Then, they were asked to specify the eliciting event and told to answer the appraisal items with respect to this event. We included seven appraisal dimensions, adopted from Roseman et al. (1996) and Roseman (2001). Each appraisal dimension was measured by one item, with the exception of agency, which was measured by three items (self-agency, other-person-agency and circumstances-agency). In total, eighteen appraisal questions were answered on 4-point scales. To keep subjects focused on the relevant appraisals, the stem "My regret/pride was caused by" was given as the first part of each appraisal item (Roseman et al., 1996).

For example, an item assessing the extent to which an appraisal of self-agency had caused a subject to feel regret was: “My regret was caused by: Thinking that the event was not at all caused by me (1) ... Thinking that the event was very much caused by me (4).” Items and response scales measuring each appraisal are given in Table 3.2. Appraisal items for the second emotion experience were followed by two demographic questions which enquired about the nationality and first language of respondents. At the end, subjects were asked to indicate their willingness to be contacted again and take part in a follow-up interview.

With a view to minimizing the effect that answering questions about one emotion could have on questions about the second emotion (Brown, 2001), two versions of the questionnaire were created: in one, subjects recalled first an instance of pride, then of regret; in the other version this order was reversed. Apart from this, the two were identical.

As it was to be electronically submitted, the researcher was assisted by the Survey Office at the OU’s Institute of Educational Technology (IET) in formatting the questionnaire for maximum clarity. IET provided also the relevant demographics for the respondents (i.e. gender, age, ethnicity, level of education, region of study), which meant that the questionnaire did not need to include potentially sensitive and/or off-putting personal/classification questions (Dörnyei, 2003b), other than the nationality and first language of respondents.

Questionnaire completion time had averaged fifteen minutes in piloting, when students answered appraisal questions relating to one emotional experience. Seeing as they were



asked to recall two events now, we calculated approximately thirty minutes for completion.

**Table 3.2** Dimensions and Items Measuring Appraisals in the final questionnaire

Dimension	Item and scale anchors
Unexpectedness	<i>The event being expected (1) to The event being unexpected (4).</i>
Situational state	<i>Believing that the event improved things (1) to Believing that the event made things worse (4).</i>
Motivational state	<i>Wanting to get or keep something pleasurable (1) to Wanting to get rid of or avoid something painful (4).</i>
Probability	<i>Being certain about the consequences of the event (1) to Being uncertain about the consequences of the event (4).</i>
Agency	
Self	<i>Thinking that the event was not all caused by me (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by me (4).</i>
Other	<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused by someone else (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by someone else (4).</i>
Circumstances	<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control (4).</i>
Control potential	<i>Thinking that there was something I could do about the event (1) to Thinking that there was nothing I could do about the event (4).</i>
Problem type	<i>The event helped or hindered my needs, plans or goals (1) to The event was positive or negative independent of my evaluation (4).</i>

*Note:* This table is based on Roseman (2001) and van Dijk and Zeelenberg (2002).

### 3.2.4 Sampling

At the time of data collection, the Department of Languages (DoL) at the OU offered 12 courses in dual-strand mode: French, German and Spanish at beginners', intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced levels. This meant that students were required to choose one of the two modes of tuition available to them: Lyceum or face-to-face. All beginners' courses were being surveyed as part of a major OU study on motivation, and were not sampled on the grounds of potential questionnaire fatigue. As the researcher is a language tutor with the OU and has taught Spanish at all levels, these courses were

also eliminated because of possible bias. Students of German were not considered either as we had not ruled out the possibility of conducting observation of tutorials at this stage, and the researcher does not speak the language. Consequently, our target sample consisted of the whole population of students registered on the online strand of all French courses above the level of beginners (LZX120 *Overture*, LZX211 *Nouvel Envol* and LZX310 *Mises au point*) starting in February 2007, who received their results in December 2007; in total, 436 subjects.

### 3.2.5 Procedure

The questionnaire was mailed out electronically from IET's Survey Office on January 11<sup>th</sup> 2008, with a deadline of January 31<sup>st</sup> and a reminder on January 21<sup>st</sup>, to avoid clashing with the start of the new academic year in February. However, we were concerned that such a short deadline would work against a good response rate. As feared, the number of questionnaires submitted by January 31<sup>st</sup> was poor; therefore, the deadline was extended until February 14<sup>th</sup>, by which date 60 questionnaires were submitted, representing 13.76% of the total target group.

Although such a low return rate is common in the social sciences, it is unusual for OU students. Some factors may have contributed to this: first, the questionnaire was sent out to all students who were registered to start the online French courses in February 2007; however, not all registered students actually take the examination at the end of the year, which means that it is likely that we reached some students who had not finished the course and thus did not submit the questionnaire either. It is also possible that some

subjects were registered to do more than one post-beginner French course at the same time (the OU assigns a certain number of points to its courses – i.e. 60 points worth of study for a certificate – so some students juggle two at once to shorten the time it would take them to obtain a qualification); presumably they would have filled in the questionnaire only once. Also, the OU does not make attendance at tutorials compulsory; as a result, in the researcher's experience, few students take part regularly; since we explicitly asked about emotional experiences of students in connection with tutorials in Lyceum, we would normally expect those who never attended online sessions to exclude themselves and not respond to our request. Besides, even though piloting showed that nearly three quarters of those surveyed had experienced regret and all of them pride, it is still conceivable that a number of the target sample did not feel either of the two emotions or was unable to recall them. Lastly, our subjects may have been too reluctant to talk about their feelings in public.

### *3.3 Interviews*

#### *3.3.1 Accessing learners' thoughts and feelings*

Having obtained an appraisal pattern for regret and pride from the questionnaire data, we wanted to have the opportunity to explore any inconsistencies between our findings and the findings of the literature, and learn in more detail about the experiences of the two emotions from the learners' personal point of view. To find out about the thoughts and feelings of subjects requires gaining access to unobservable mental processes, difficult to investigate directly if not by asking subjects themselves. To this aim,

researchers encourage respondents' self-reflection and help them "to vocalize what is/was going through their minds when making a judgement, solving a problem or performing a task" (Dörnyei, 2007: 147).

One of the techniques that cognitive psychologists and linguists alike employ to elicit this type of verbal report are think-aloud protocols (TAPs). On the strength of subjects not finding them intrusive, Hurd (2007a; 2007b) remarks that TAPs are particularly suitable to the study of affect in the context of distance language learning. She asked a small number of Open University students to record their thoughts "as they came to mind", while carrying out a language task from their course books. Scholars explain that it is important that vocalization occurs while thoughts are still in the short-term memory of respondents, since "the greater the temporal distance between the event and report, the greater the chance of embellishment and decay of information" (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995: 3). Therein lies one of the advantages of the research tool: verbal reports produced as TAPs are not retrospective, but concurrent and thus, also more accurate.

As to the weaknesses of TAPs, some researchers doubt our awareness of cognitive processes that are mainly automatic (Singhal, 2001); others claim that verbal reports have an effect on task performance (Stratman & Hamp-Lyons, 1994). Ericsson and Simon (1993) suggest that subjects receive instructions and are given warm-up trials to avoid the interference of think-aloud with the task at hand, which in turn raises the issue that such training may affect the validity of the reports, since verbalizations can be influenced by the preceding input (Gass & Mackey, 2000).

Also less prone to the biases of retrospective accounts, another approach to collect learners' thoughts and feelings is to rely on diary studies, in which subjects report on their daily emotional experiences in diary-like entries (Oatley et al., 2006). Schumann (1997) sees learners' diaries as the report of their unique affective trajectory in language learning: they are accounts of learners' appraisals of the language learning situation – their likes and dislikes, preferences and aversions – and often also the consequences of these appraisals – persevering or withdrawing from learning the L2. He emphasizes the fact that, while questionnaires allow learners to reveal what the researcher considers important, diaries allow learners to reveal what they believe is relevant. For this reason diaries are a very useful research tool. As is the case with TAPs, data yielded in diaries may be inaccessible through other means, and they can be kept by anyone anywhere (Cohen, 1998).

With regard to the drawbacks, the volume of data generated as diary entries may be considerable and potentially of a random nature. Oxford et al. (1996) sought to overcome this limitation by directing learners to write only about specific aspects of the research, but as Cohen (1998) points out, this may cause learners to be less cooperative. Indeed Bolger et al. (2003) indicate that diary studies are very demanding on the part of informants, not only because they need to be literate (Gibson, 1995), but because they are required to show a level of commitment and dedication par with their production of regular high-quality data. In addition, the findings of diary studies are difficult to generalize due to the small numbers involved (Nunan, 1992), and they are equally subject to the criticisms of TAPs regarding reactivity and automaticity.

In spite of the constraints of TAPs and diaries as methods to elicit verbal reports, we are in no doubt that, had we employed either of them, we would have obtained a very interesting insight into the emotional lives of distance language learners. Nonetheless, one main concern eventually helped us to conclude that interviewing our subjects would be the appropriate tool for this project. As we mentioned earlier, Roseman et al. (1990) observed that, when asked to tell an emotional event, subjects often included more than one emotion in their narratives, thus making it problematic to establish which appraisal determined which emotion. Since it was the purpose of our research to specifically find out the appraisal patterns of regret and pride, we did not want to risk having invalid data for analysis, hence we thought it convenient to enquire about these emotions face-to-face and make sure that our subjects did not deviate too much from the particular situation that they were recalling. Besides, it was important to have the chance to probe further not only into emerging new issues, but also into some of the questionnaire findings which otherwise would have been left unexplained – for example, the reasons for not feeling regret or pride. Finally, in the case of any of our questions not being sufficiently clear, in an interview setting we would be in a position to clarify what we meant.

### *3.3.2 Qualitative interviews*

“A qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the subjects’ point of view, to unfold the meaning of people’s experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations” (Kvale, 1996: 1). Although a conversation between

two (or more) people, a qualitative research interview is not a daily exchange of questions and answers but a professional person-to-person encounter with a structure and a purpose determined by the interviewer (Kvale, 1996; Merriam, 1998). It is a site where both parties interact to coconstruct knowledge within a particular type of social relationship (Mishler, 1986). Because knowledge depends on this social relationship between interviewer and interviewee, it is paramount that the former creates a safe environment where the subject feels free to share private events with a stranger (Kvale, 1996).

In view of this, and to gain the trust of our participants, before each interview we briefly explained the purpose of the project; we gave assurance that they were free to not answer any questions that made them feel uncomfortable, and reassured them on the issue of confidentiality; we requested their permission to record the interview, and asked if they had any queries. We followed this introduction with a series of simple questions designed to establish a rapport and help them relax, while gathering background information about their motivation to study a language, their reasons for doing online tutorials and their overall experience with Lyceum.

The goal of the interview was to obtain rich descriptions of distance language learners' experiences of regret and pride in online tutorials, therefore our next step was to encourage them to reflect retrospectively, using their responses to the questionnaires as stimulus to retrieve the relevant thoughts. Specifically we asked "In the questionnaire you said that you felt regret (or pride) when... Can you tell me more about it?". To ensure that we covered all points, we prepared an interview guide with questions

which, adopting the approach of Roseman et al. (1994) and Zeelenberg et al., (1998), invited learners to talk about what they felt, thought, felt like doing and did during the events causing the emotion. Follow-up questions with the interviewees' own words as probes served to clarify and increase the depth of their statements. As we sought to keep the conversation focused on concrete situations, we often had to use words such as "Let me bring you back to the moment when you felt regret (or pride)...". Last of all, we brought the interview to an end with the open question "Is there anything else you would like to add?" to allow students to have the final say (Dörnyei, 2007).

In their study of women's experience of anger, DeMarrais and Tisdale (2002) observe that while conducting qualitative interviews on troubling emotions, interviewer and interviewee may become emotionally engaged in the process. They urge researchers to plan their response in the likely scenario that an informant is upset after reliving the emotional episode; but also to interrogate their own beliefs about emotions, since these can influence the research in a myriad of ways. In relation to this, we did not think that regret or pride in the online language tutorial would be difficult for participants to discuss or for the researcher to hear. We acknowledge the fact that in some cases, by encouraging learners to talk about their feelings, we may have helped them to vent certain personal concerns; and we admit that the researcher, being an OU language tutor herself, was displeased to be told of the negative experiences of several students in Lyceum. But the occasion never arose for anyone to implicate themselves emotionally in such a manner that their health or the research would be compromised.



A number of caveats need to be raised in connection with our use of interviews as a method of data collection. The most important of these is the inevitable loss of information due to the time lapse between the occurrence of the emotional event and the interview itself (even when respondents talked about events that took place during their current studies as opposed to the previous course). As all interviewees were volunteers, we could have attracted a certain degree of social desirability bias. On the plus side, the reactive effect of this type of interview is less intense than that experienced when other methods are used to elicit verbal reports, in that while participants were experiencing the emotional episode, none of them knew that they would be interviewed about it at a later date. Furthermore, while it was explained to them that the aim of the project was to find out about the emotional experiences of distance language learners during online tutorials, how they are elicited and what behaviour is associated with them, there was never a direct mention of appraisal dimensions that could have influenced their stories.

In summary, our methodological approach combined the quantitative and qualitative paradigms. First, we constructed and administered a questionnaire which allowed us to collect experimental data on the emotions that distance language learners felt during online tutorials, and their appraisals of events leading to their feelings of regret and pride. As we prepared to interview a sample of questionnaire respondents about their experiences of these two emotions, we used the questionnaire data to partly inform the interview guide; at the same time, we were confident that the exploratory nature of interviews would help us enhance the interpretation of questionnaire data. Thus, we

carried forward this interplay of methodologies into the analysis, as follows in the next chapter, after discussion of the ethical implications of our research.

### *3.4 Ethics*

The Open University observes a two stage process to address ethical considerations. Before it starts, any project which involves the collection of data information from samples of Open University students needs authorization from the Student Research Project Panel (SRPP). The SRPP safeguards all OU students from being overburdened with requests to participate in research, checks that all research is of an appropriate nature and not likely to cause offence or give an undesirable impression of the University, and that all projects adhere to Data protection requirements. The panel may also draw the researcher's attention to existing areas of the research that may be improved, or suggest points that the researcher may consider for the benefit of the project – in our case, we were advised to pilot the questionnaire, as it was perceived that the appraisal section would be difficult to complete.

Once our project was sanctioned by the SRPP, we sought approval from the Human Participants and Materials Ethics Committee (HPMEC). The HPMEC looks after issues concerning the protection of identity, confidentiality, information of what participation will involve, recompense to participants, deception, risks and how participants will be informed after data collection of the purpose of their participation and the research more broadly. Accordingly, and in line with the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) recommendations on good practice and the British Education Research

Association (BERA) guidelines, our invitation to students to take part in the survey included a description of the aims of the study in general terms, what it entailed for participants, and who to contact regarding the research if they had any queries (see Letter of Information in Appendix 2). All students were also guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality, and reassured that participation or non-participation would not affect their studies, and that they could withdraw at any time, for any reason, without penalty. In addition, they were notified that all electronically stored data would be held up for a year and destroyed on completion of the project.

We did not foresee any risks for anyone involved in the research. We were aware that emotions can be a sensitive topic, and that the encouragement of personal expression and emotions may lead us into a therapeutic situation for which we were not trained (Kvale, 1996; 2007). At the same time, we were in no doubt that we were not asking participants to deal with extreme emotions but everyday occurrences, and that, although we established the rapport necessary to provide a safe atmosphere for them to talk freely, it was never the close relationship normally developed in long and repeated interviews. We were resolved that in the unlikely instance of anyone becoming emotionally distressed, the needs of the respondent would take priority over the needs of the research.

We have the utmost respect for OU students and know of the pressure that some of them are under to balance their professional and personal lives with their studies. For this reason, we made sure that any demands on our part were kept to a minimum. For example, after contacting those who volunteered to be interviewed, we refrained from

accepting the offer of two students who, unable to make themselves available for interview, suggested answering our questions in writing, despite being in the midst of difficult and even tragic personal circumstances.

All interviewees gave their informed consent for the interview to be recorded (see Appendix 3), and were told that they were under no obligation to answer any questions with which they did not feel comfortable.

Transcriptions of the interviews were anonymized so that no personal data would help the recognition of participants in the writing of this dissertation or future publications. Needless to say, on those occasions when students were critical of their tutors, we did not ask for their names nor were any supplied. No participant in the research project received any kind of recompense, and there was total clarity about the purpose, methods and procedure of the research. On completion of the project, a brief report with the findings will be sent to those students who provided a means of contact to show that their efforts in assisting the researcher have been worthwhile.

## Chapter 4

### Analysis

#### *4.1 Introduction*

As explained in the previous chapter, a mixed method research design meant that we collected data from questionnaires and interviews. The purpose of this chapter is to present first the questionnaire findings, followed by the analysis of the interview data. However, it is important to note that, just as we combined quantitative and qualitative methodologies at the level of data collection, our analysis is born of a dialogue between both sources of data.

#### *4.2 Analysis of questionnaires*

##### *4.2.1 Data screening and cleaning*

The sixty questionnaires which had been electronically submitted were initially compiled as an Excel file and later imported into SPSS. Each questionnaire item was coded as a separate variable. A first screening of the data revealed three unusable cases: one respondent recorded never attending tutorials in Lyceum and submitted a blank questionnaire; another answered never to all questions, and a third indicated that she never attended tutorials in Lyceum and had little or no confidence using the software. Since our research intended to find out about emotional experiences related to the use of the technology, these three cases were eliminated from the analysis. Further data

checking detected no outliers with either high or low scores. Cells with missing values were left empty. Cases with missing values were deleted pairwise unless otherwise stated.

#### 4.2.2 Personal characteristics of respondents

We obtained fifty seven replies to the first section of the questionnaire – items asking students to rate their confidence using Lyceum, their attendance at tutorials and how often they felt one of the emotions listed (namely surprise, anger, relief, dislike towards someone, pride, fear, sadness, distress, affection towards someone, disgust, frustration, regret, contempt, joy, guilt, shame and hope). Only forty three respondents recalled an instance of regret and/or pride and completed the second section of the questionnaire. The first column in Table 4.1 shows the biographical data of participants who responded to questions on technical ability, attendance and emotions; the second column corresponds to those who responded to appraisal items.

**Table 4.1** Personal characteristics of respondents

<i>Characteristic</i>	Section 1 (N= 57)	Section 2 (N= 43)
Gender (%)		
Female	62.5	65.9
Male	37.5	34.1
Nationality (%)		
British	72.0	75.0
Other European	22.4	20.5
Other non-European	5.6	4.5
First Language (%)		
English	75.0	76.8
Bilingual with English	3.5	4.6
Other European languages	21.5	18.6
Average age	47.5	48.3

The personal characteristics of both groups were similar. Respondents to the first section of the questionnaire were 35 females and 21 males, ranging in age from 20 to 71, with a median age of 47 (s.d. = 12.3 years). Thirty nine were British, twelve from other European nations (including three German, two Irish, two Spanish, one Danish, one Maltese, one Slovene, one Belgian and one French), and three were non-European (one American, one Australian and one Togolese). Over three quarters spoke English as their first language, while the remaining were native speakers of one of the following: Spanish, German, Russian, Slovene, Danish, French and Dutch/Flemish. In the second group, there were 27 females and 15 males, also ranging in age from 20 to 71, with a median age of 48 (s.d. = 12.5 years). Thirty three were of British nationality, nine other European, one Australian and one Togolese. The majority (80%) spoke English as a first language, three were native speakers of German, two were native speakers of French, one of Spanish, one of Slovene, and one of Dutch/Flemish.

#### *4.2.3 Reliability and validity*

As we designed the questionnaire to measure distinctly different things – the emotions that students felt during online tutorials, and how they appraised regret and pride – we examined the reliability of these two sections of our instrument separately. The Cronbach alpha internal-consistency reliability estimate for the 17 emotion items was .79. In other words, these questions were about 79 per cent reliable and about 21 per cent unreliable. The Cronbach alpha internal-consistency reliability estimate for the 18 appraisal items was .80.

To establish that the 17 emotion items in the questionnaire actually measured emotions, we needed to establish empirically that they clustered together (Skehan, 1989). Therefore we subjected the raw data to a factor analysis, obtaining the results shown in Table 4.2. The table shows that four factors seem to underlie the data. Surprise, relief, fear and hope all load highly on the first factor, which we interpret as a category of emotions occurring before and after a language tutorial. Pride, affection towards someone and joy load highly on the second factor, suggesting a “feel good” category. Factor three is “feel bad”, loading highly on frustration and regret. On factor four the positive high loading on dislike towards someone and the negative high loading on shame combine in an unexpected way. It is not difficult to imagine how in a language tutorial one can dislike another student for disrupting the normal flow of the class, for instance; however, it is less clear how the emotion may be accompanied by an absence of shame. We find a possible explanation in Roseman’s categorization of emotions (1994; 2001): he considers dislike towards someone a ‘distancing’ emotion, associated with a strategy to move the self away from the stimulus. Thus, for example, if a person is being disruptive in the class because their language level is considerably higher or lower, one would want to move away from them, as in say, perhaps by avoiding pairwork with them. On the other hand, shame is an ‘exclusion’ emotion associated with a strategy to get rid of something by moving the stimulus away from the self. The presence of hostility and absence of shame imply a sense that the judgement is justified.



**Table 4.2** Factor analysis of emotion items

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Surprise	.766	.132	.206	.061
Anger	-.023	.008	.221	.475
Relief	.831	.200	-.083	-.133
Dislike towards someone	-.079	.129	-.101	.856
Pride	.120	.768	-.014	.067
Fear	.723	-.200	.306	-.192
Sadness	-.076	.082	-.009	.021
Distress	.599	-.085	.372	-.052
Affection towards someone	-.001	.768	-.060	-.106
Disgust	.028	.036	.230	-.067
Frustration	.092	-.272	.792	-.044
Regret	.316	.059	.748	.016
Contempt	.412	-.300	-.318	.266
Joy	.202	.733	-.184	.230
Guilt	.524	.298	.412	-.189
Shame	.326	.113	.046	-.613
Hope	.649	.226	-.037	-.026

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

#### 4.2.4 Attendance at tutorials

Frequencies of the attendance at tutorials variable showed that 19% of our sample attended tutorials sometimes, 22% mostly, and 16% always. The correlation between gender and tutorial attendance was significant at the 0.05 level: women attended tutorials in Lyceum more often than men (see Table 4.3).

#### 4.2.5 Confidence in using Lyceum

Out of a total of 56 responses, twenty one individuals (36.8%) said they were very confident using the software, thirty (52.6%) were confident and five not so confident

(8.8%). No significant relationship was found between confidence and either sex or tutorial attendance.

**Table 4.3** Crosstabulation of gender and attendance at tutorials

			Attendance at tutorials			Total
			Sometimes	Mostly	Always	
Gender	Female	Count	7	16	12	35
		% of Total	12.5%	28.6%	21.4%	62.5%
	Male	Count	11	6	4	21
		% of Total	19.6%	10.7%	7.1%	37.5%
Total		Count	18	22	16	56
		% of Total	32.1%	39.3%	28.6%	100.0%

#### 4.2.6 Emotions

Table 4.4 shows how often the respondents felt each of the seventeen emotions during a tutorial in Lyceum. The analysis of the means shows that positive emotions – relief, pride, affection towards someone, joy and hope – scored higher ( $M = 1.86$ ) than negative emotions ( $M = 1.51$ ) – anger, dislike towards someone, fear, sadness, distress, disgust, frustration, regret, contempt, guilt and shame. Surprise was excluded from the above calculations because it can be considered both a positive and a negative emotion. The emotions with the highest mean were frustration ( $M = 2.24$ ), hope ( $M = 2.09$ ), relief ( $M = 1.91$ ) and joy ( $M = 1.86$ ). Disgust ( $M = 1.14$ ), contempt ( $M = 1.21$ ) and sadness ( $M = 1.30$ ) had the lowest mean (see Appendix 4).

**Table 4.4** Frequencies per emotion during tutorials in Lyceum

	Never		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		Total
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count
Surprise	16	28.6%	37	66.1%	3	5.4%			56
Anger	31	54.4%	24	42.1%	2	3.5%			57

	Never		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		Total
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count
Relief	15	26.8%	32	57.1%	8	14.3%	1	1.8%	56
Dislike towards someone	30	52.6%	24	42.1%	3	5.3%			57
Pride	18	31.6%	34	59.6%	5	8.8%			57
Fear	27	48.2%	21	37.5%	6	10.7%	2	3.6%	56
Sadness	40	71.4%	15	26.8%	1	1.8%			56
Distress	28	50.9%	21	38.2%	5	9.1%	1	1.8%	55
Affection towards someone	21	38.9%	30	55.6%	3	5.6%			54
Disgust	49	87.5%	6	10.7%	1	1.8%			56
Frustration	6	10.9%	33	60.0%	13	23.6%	3	5.5%	55
Regret	26	47.3%	27	49.1%	2	3.6%			55
Contempt	46	80.7%	10	17.5%	1	1.8%			57
Joy	14	24.6%	37	64.9%	6	10.5%			57
Guilt	38	69.1%	16	29.1%	1	1.8%			55
Shame	32	56.1%	23	40.4%	1	1.8%	1	1.8%	57
Hope	7	12.3%	38	66.7%	12	21.1%			57

We found that gender was significantly related only to sadness,  $\chi^2 (2, 55) = 6.6, p = .037$ , Cramer's  $V = .34 (p < .05)$ ; affection towards someone,  $\chi^2 (2, 53) = 9.6, p = .008$ , Cramer's  $V = .42 (p < .01)$ ; joy,  $\chi^2 (2, 56) = 11.4, p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .45 (p < .01)$ , and guilt,  $\chi^2 (2, 54) = 6.2, p = .043$ , Cramer's  $V = .34 (p < .05)$ . Thus, more men (17.9%) than women (5.4%) said they never experienced joy during a tutorial; more women (50%) than men (16.1%) said they experienced joy sometimes; and more women (7.1%) than men (3.6%) said they experienced joy mostly. More men (24.5%) than women (15.1%) never felt affection towards someone; more women (43.4%) than men (11.3%) felt affection towards someone sometimes; and more men (3.8%) than women (1.9%) felt affection mostly. More women (38.2%) than men (32.7%) never experienced sadness in a tutorial; more women (23.6%) than men (3.6%) experienced sadness sometimes; and more men (1.9%)

than women (0%) experienced sadness mostly. Finally, more women (38.9%) than men (31.5%) indicated that they never felt guilt in a tutorial; more women (24.1%) than men (3.7%) felt guilt sometimes; and more men (1.9%) than women (0%) felt guilt mostly. Overall, women mentioned feeling joy, affection towards someone, sadness and guilt during tutorials more often than men. Therefore, in our sample, men and women differ in how often they feel certain emotions. Generally women communicate emotional reactions more frequently, the difference being more pronounced when positive rather than negative emotions are spoken about (see Appendix 5). These results seem to coincide with studies concluding that women are more emotionally expressive than men, and also report experiencing more emotion than men (Kring & Gordon, 1998). Gender differences in expressive behaviour in social situations are believed to be determined by social and cultural standards about how and when to express emotion (Buck et al., 1992; Ekman, 1992). Thus, for example, whereas boys learn to conceal their feelings, girls learn to more freely express them (Brody, 1985).

We also hypothesized that some participants just felt more than others. We added two new variables – high affect, which was the sum of the seventeen emotions, and mean affect, the sum divided by seventeen – and observed not only that indeed some people seemed to account for more emotional responses, but also that these “high feelers” were mostly women. We selected those cases with a high affect score of 30 or higher and compared the means of the positive and negative emotions (see Table 4.5). All these reported feeling pride, joy, affection towards someone, relief and hope more often than anger, dislike towards someone, fear, sadness, distress, disgust, frustration, regret,

contempt, guilt and shame, with the exception of case 34 – who felt unpleasantly more often than pleasantly – and case 42 – who felt positive emotions as frequently as negative emotions.

**Table 4.5** Difference between positive and negative emotions by high score case

	Gender	High Affect	Positive Mean	Negative Mean
Case 31	F	36	2.6	1.8
Case 8	F	35	2.2	2.0
Case 20	F	35	2.4	1.8
Case 34	M	35	1.6	2.1
Case 10	F	33	2.0	1.9
Case 2	F	32	2.0	1.8
Case 28	F	32	2.4	1.7
Case 16	M	31	2.0	1.7
Case 18	F	31	2.0	1.7
Case 42	F	31	1.8	1.8
Case 54	F	31	2.2	1.6
Case 6	F	30	2.4	1.4
Case 19	F	30	2.8	0.3
Case 33	F	30	2.0	1.6
Case 35	F	30	2.4	1.4

To explore further, we ran a bilateral correlation for all the seventeen emotions plus confidence using Lyceum and tutorial attendance (see Appendix 6). We found that attendance at tutorials and contempt did not correlate with any other variable. As for the remaining variables, for the most part we observed distinct clusters of positive and negative emotions. For example, regret was significantly correlated with frustration,  $r = .45$ ,  $p < .001$ ; with distress,  $r = .40$ , disgust,  $r = .37$  and guilt,  $r = .37$  ( $ps < .01$  in all cases); and with shame,  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .05$ . Likewise, there was a significant relationship between pride and both joy,  $r = .57$  and affection towards someone,  $r = .50$  (both  $p < .001$ ), as well as relief,  $r = .29$  and hope,  $r = .26$  (both  $p < .05$ ). There were fewer correlations between pleasant and unpleasant emotions, primarily involving frustration, surprise and relief.

Understandably, frustration correlated negatively with joy. Surprise showed a significant relationship with pride and hope on the one hand, but distress and fear on the other. As an emotion dependent on an evaluation of the unexpectedness of a situation (Roseman, 2001), the ambivalence of surprise is not difficult to comprehend: for instance, a distance language learner has fallen behind with her course work, goes ahead to her online tutorial thinking that she will not be able to contribute much; surprisingly, she does better than she expected, which is enough to make her feel proud and hopeful for the rest of the course. The opposite scenario is just as plausible: a distance language learner thinks that she is fairly up to date with the course work, but attends a tutorial to discover that she is actually well behind the level of her classmates, which makes her feel distressed and fearful for her success in the exam. What we see here is a shift from surprise to pride and hope, from surprise to distress and fear, a transition between emotions in effect before, during and after an online tutorial, which also appears in correlations of relief. We performed a linear regression on relief as the dependent variable, with surprise, fear, guilt, hope, joy, pride, distress, shame and confidence in using Lyceum as independent variables, to see if we could develop a model that would allow us to establish a predictive relationship between relief and the other significant variables. In this case and for this dataset, 66% of the variability within relief was explained by the model. The results showed that only surprise, guilt, confidence using Lyceum, joy and distress contributed anything significant, and thus we could exclude fear, hope, pride and shame. We re-ran the regression without these four variables and found that our model now explained 55% of the variability. We repeated the analysis a

third time, excluding distress which had earlier showed as non-significant. The final model revealed that 56% of the variation in relief was explained by surprise, guilt, joy and confidence using Lyceum (see Table 4.6).

Of these variables, confidence using Lyceum presented us with some confusion. It would be our assumption that, as learners are more and more familiar with the software, fewer occasions would occur that would merit a feeling of relief. If a student does not know how to move from screen to screen in Lyceum, for example, this inability will potentially obstruct her objective of practising the language with her peers; there is a goal-blocking condition which, if removed, will cause the student to feel relieved (Lazarus, 2001). However, if the student knows how to move from screen to screen, how to open a document module, how to go into a breakout room, in sum how to find her way around Lyceum, no event exists that will give rise to her relief. Curiously, the above model indicates the opposite: high levels of relief are partly determined by strong Lyceum skills. How can we explain this? There seems to be a prevailing belief among users of the software that no matter how familiar one is with its workings, the probability of a technical mishap is always tangible – I know how to use Lyceum, but that does not mean that my Internet connection will not fail, that other students in my tutorial group will fix their sound levels so that I can hear them, or that the tutor will not be suddenly kicked out of the system. Thus, we draw from personal experience and the conversations with our interviewees in the second stage of data collection for the project to offer a likely interpretation of the model predicting relief: a distance language learner, comfortable in Lyceum, feels guilty not to have prepared ahead of a tutorial; she is

surprised to see that she is at on a par with her peers, and she does well in class; technological problems at bay, at the end of the day she feels joyful and relieved. As with surprise, we observe the transition between pleasant and unpleasant emotions before, during and after a tutorial.

**Table 4.6** Regression analysis with relief as dependent variable

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$
Step 1			
Constant	-.729	.359	
Surprise	.426	.151	.340**
Fear	.217	.138	.230
Guilt	.390	.174	.254*
Hope	.164	.158	.134
Confidence	.252	.118	.229*
Joy	.356	.150	.299*
Pride	-.136	.140	-.115
Distress	-.273	.125	-.274*
Shame	.189	.132	.146
Step 2			
Constant	-.471	.343	
Surprise	.494	.154	.395**
Guilt	.459	.170	.305*
Confidence	.266	.121	.242*
Joy	.317	.121	.267*
Distress	-.078	.120	-.078
Step 3			
Constant	-.568	.334	
Surprise	.485	.141	.380**
Guilt	.420	.167	.271*
Confidence	.254	.112	.225*
Joy	.355	.116	.297**

\*  $p < .05$  \*\*  $p < .01$ .

$R^2 = .66$  for Step 1,  $\Delta R^2 = .55$  for Step 2,  $\Delta R^2 = .56$  for Step 3

#### 4.2.7 Appraisal of regret and pride

Our data included thirty four accounts of regret (18 as the first emotion recalled, 16 as second) and thirty six accounts of pride (18 as recalled first).



Subjects tended to describe experiences of regret which referred to their own or other classmates' lack of preparation before a tutorial, lack of confidence to speak, and disappointment at the software's performance and/or the inherent characteristics of communication in the environment, as in these examples:

*I regret not speaking up because of my desire to speak the perfect sentence before doing so and realizing that others weren't waiting and I would have got more out of the session if I'd just said what I could. Others weren't speaking perfectly either and I could have done just as well as them but hadn't given myself the opportunity to demonstrate that I could.*

*A topic that I hadn't managed to look into yet was being covered and it was pretty complex. I really regretted not having prepared myself better because the tutorial was so valuable.*

*I have a fairly active sense of humour and a good command of the language, so sometimes I would crack a joke and as there is no visual communication it is difficult to tell if it has been well received or not. Luckily my tutor had a fantastic sense of humour and most of the time he made a point of noting it. I regretted not knowing how something had been received, as obviously only one person may speak at a time. In a classroom situation laughter or facial expressions can be observed.*

*I felt frustrated when my tutor repeatedly said she didn't understand me and I regretted signing up for distance language learning and regretted taking the course. The tutor failed to try and understand me, or to help me, or to perhaps make some suggestions as to what I was trying to say.*

*When I paired up with someone whose spoken French was very bad. I wished that I had a more adequate partner.*

*I regret spending three evenings waiting for other students to come online to do our preparation work together, but no one showed up. I regret not being able to do preparation, while having wasted time.*

*In several sessions, various members of my regular tutorial group had difficulty with Lyceum audio facilities. Either they could not hear others, or others could not hear them, or both; or else the audio connection was intermittent. I regretted missing the input of the members who could not hear/speak to the group.*

Examples of pride were related to achievement not only in the use of the language but also the technology, and receiving praise in competition with others, as the following illustrate:

*I felt proud that I was able to install the software and connect to Lyceum without problems, on hearing the other students talk and being able to respond.*

*I felt pride after I contributed to a session, that I made a contribution which I believe enhanced the whole tutorial.*

*When an idea of mine was accepted by the group. I felt part of the team.*

*Ability to take part in a discussion and come up with the appropriate language and understand the responses of the other students and tutor. I felt proud that at long last I was beginning to feel I was making some progress.*

*I felt pride when I could answer a question that no one else could answer. What caused my pride was the tutor acknowledging the fact, though as I have lived in France for many years it was likely that I would be able to answer such a question.*

*When I felt that I had understood a task and been able to complete it without undue stress, but also felt some satisfaction of rising to a challenge. It was achievement and overcoming nerves to be able to engage brain and speak effectively.*

*I was proud when I understood the tutor and was able to reply to her in French. My conversational French wasn't great and without seeing the person it was sometimes difficult to communicate but persevering with Lyceum I got there in the end.*

*I was able to complete an exercise using both language skills and Lyceum skills.*

*I felt pride when I managed to speak freely and do the exercises with my partner or group online. I was able to overcome the anonymity of the system by forging a link to someone.*

*I mistakenly logged on to Lyceum on the wrong date, and hence the tutorial group I encountered was other than that to which I properly belonged. Nevertheless, the tutor kindly invited me to stay for the session and, at the end, invited me to return for subsequent sessions. Although the tutor's invitation to stay for the CURRENT session may be seen simply as kindness, the invitation to me to return for SUBSEQUENT sessions represented specific and concrete feedback to my contributions during the session.*

In order to obviate the effect that appraising one emotion first may have on appraising the other, we had two versions of the questionnaire: half our group of respondents were asked to recall an instance of regret first and then pride, while the other half recalled pride first and then regret. Thus, we performed separate analysis on the emotions recalled in first place (Experience 1) and second place (Experience 2), allowing us to better judge the robustness of our results.

To determine whether there were any differences in appraisal of events that elicited regret and pride, we ran multivariate analyses of variance of data for the first and

second experiences recalled by subjects. The predictor variable in these analyses was the emotion recalled (regret/pride); dependent variables were all of the appraisal items per dimension (unexpectedness, situational state, motivational state, probability, agency, control potential and problem type). Results of the MANOVAs showed significant differences between regret and pride, both in the first experience,  $F(9, 22) = .61, p < .01$ , and in the second experience,  $F(9, 22) = .86, p < .001$ . Thus, it was clear that appraisals of regret and pride differed from each other, regardless of the order they were recalled.

Next we calculated the frequencies per appraisal dimension for each emotion (see Appendices 7 & 8). With regard to regret, there was no difference between experiences 1 and 2 in appraisals of unexpectedness, situational state, probability, control potential and problem type, that is to say, a majority respondents in our sample appraised the event that caused them to feel regret as unexpected, as inconsistent with their motives and as unwanted because it blocked attainment of their goal; they were uncertain about its consequences but believed they could do something to cope with it. However, most of those respondents who appraised regret before pride thought the event eliciting regret was relevant to appetitive motives – wanting to get more of something pleasurable – and most of those who appraised pride before regret thought the event eliciting regret was relevant to aversive motives – wanting to discontinue something painful. Our data also revealed some discrepancy between groups with reference to who or what caused the event leading to their regret: as Experience 1, our subjects thought that the event was very much caused by them (59%), not at all caused by someone else (61%) and not at all caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control (63%); while as

Experience 2, regret is mostly appraised as not at all caused by oneself (56%) and very much caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control (53%).

In contrast, regardless of whether it was recalled in first or second place, a majority of respondents in our sample appraised the event eliciting pride as unexpected, as consistent with their motives, as very much caused by oneself and not at all caused by someone else or circumstances beyond anyone's control; they were certain about the consequences of the event, wanted to get more of it and believed in their ability to control it.

In view of this, it seems that recalling pride in the first instance has a minor effect on the appraisal of regret, in the sense that thinking of a positive event, caused by oneself and regarded as something one wants to get more of, may accentuate the negative aspects of the next recalled event through an appraisal of opposites – not caused by oneself and to be avoided. Having said that, since the difference in percentages is rather small, and it does not appear that recalling the negative emotion first accentuates the positive appraisal of pride, we are inclined to dismiss the effect as unimportant.

In the following section, we approach the analysis of interviews to see how language learners verbalize the appraisal pattern of the two emotions under study, and in the case of regret, to establish whether the appraisal differences that we observed in the questionnaire data can be further substantiated.

### *4.3 Analysis of interviews*

#### *4.3.1 Implementation and coding*

Of the twenty-six questionnaire respondents who had indicated their willingness to be contacted for further study, eighteen were interviewed in the summer of 2008 – sixteen women and two men. The researcher met one of the interviewees face-to-face, another one in Lyceum and three in Skype. The remaining interviews were calls to phones over the internet also using Skype, partly on account of the low-cost service that the software provides – we talked to interviewees in France, Germany, Malta, Luxembourg and Brazil, apart from the UK – and partly for the ease it affords for making high quality digital recordings. One interview was conducted in Spanish (native language of the interviewee and interviewer), the rest in English. The eighteen interviews amount to a total of over seven hours of recordings, and average twenty-three minutes per interview. Not all interviews were considered for analysis. After arranging to speak on Skype, one of the two male respondents seemed disappointed that he could not see the researcher, whose computer did not have a video camera. The first few questions that we put to him about his motivation to study a language and the reasons why he chose to do it on Lyceum were met with generous responses. It was when we queried him about his feelings during tutorials that he reacted elusively. We found his behaviour unexpected, since he had volunteered for interview and, like all the other participants, had been sent an outline of the interview procedure, namely that they would be required to recall an event that led to their feelings of regret and/or pride, and answer how they felt, what they thought, what they felt like doing, and what they did during the emotional

occurrence. While it was true that he had been reminded both in writing and at the beginning of the interview that he did not have to answer any item that made him uncomfortable, what disconcerted us was not the fact that he evaded our questions, but the manner in which he did so: in a way he made sure that the researcher was aware of the senior managerial position from which he had recently retired and, as if he doubted our position to be probing into personal matters, he shifted the power asymmetry of the interview situation towards the interviewee and away from the interviewer (Kvale, 1996). In effect, we felt indeed inadequate and thought it pointless to continue asking questions to which the subject was clearly ill-disposed to respond. In the end, we concluded the interview with little hope of having collected significant data for use in this project, as was later confirmed.

Barring the above incident, interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher and for accuracy checked against the original by a native speaker of English. In preparation for analysis, the transcripts were anonymized and interviews divided into cases, which were then printed and coded.

The process of coding began as we went through the transcripts describing what went on in each line of text in order to familiarize ourselves with the large volume of data and find cases where the events causing the emotion were similar to each other. Such a descriptive approach was followed by a more analytic and theoretical level of combined data- and concept-driven coding: in keeping with the teachings of grounded theory, we needed to undertake intensive, line-by-line reading of the transcripts, paying close attention to what the respondents were saying and constructing codes which reflected

their experience of the world, not ours (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). At the same time, the sound theoretical background to the project meant that we could generate a list of concept-driven codes based on the appraisal patterns of regret and pride established in previous studies (Roseman et al., 1990; Roseman et al., 1996; Roseman, 2001; van Dijk and Zeelenberg, 2002) and the findings of our questionnaires. In the belief that codes do not stay intact during analysis as new ideas emerge from the data, we adopted the iterative practice of developing a code, checking for occurrences in the transcripts, comparing these with the original and revising the coding accordingly (Gibbs, 2007). This constant comparison of cases not only ensured the consistency and accuracy in the application of the codes, but also helped us to look explicitly for differences and variations of appraisal in matching events.

#### *4.3.2 Background questions*

The interview started with a series of background questions regarding the motivation of our subjects to study a language, their reasons for doing online tutorials and their overall experience with Lyceum.

In relation to their motivation to study a language, our subjects mentioned obtaining a qualification, visiting friends and family abroad, travelling abroad and wanting to communicate in the language, living abroad and wanting to integrate in the life of the country, pleasure or personal interest in the language, and present or future work, which coincide with the results of the literature regarding OU students (Furnborough, 2005).



At the time of studying, eight respondents resided abroad, where face-to-face tutorials were not available to them. Thirteen participants talked about the flexibility and convenience of having tutorials on Lyceum as opposed to attending face-to-face sessions as reasons to opt for the online version of the course, thus confirming the rationale behind the creation of the software, i.e. to offer more opportunities for oral interaction to students who could not travel long distances to a tutorial venue (Hampel, 2003). For three of them, however, it was the affordances of the virtual environment itself that attracted them to Lyceum: one person praised the lack of visual information as a bonus for those who, like her, were shy about speaking in front of strangers; another was keen to benefit from the possibility of meeting any number of people at any time, and a third welcomed the self-enforced use of the technology as a way to learn about computers.

With regard to the kind of experience that the interviewees had using the software, four indicated that they did not like it and would prefer to attend face-to-face tutorials in the future, two people confessed to having had two very different experiences with different tutors – one positive, one negative – and eleven claimed to have enjoyed it.

Next, we analysed events causing regret and pride separately.

#### *4.3.3 The appraisal pattern of regret*

We begin the analysis of case 1 (henceforth C1) to find an initial appraisal pattern of regret which will serve as basis for comparison with other cases. Open University students on their B2 exit-level course in the Common European Framework of References for Languages are required to take part in a one-week residential school

either in France, Spain or Germany. Those who cannot attend are offered the Alternative Learning Experience (ALE), a series of tutorials in Lyceum or over the phone. In her response to the questionnaire item about an event that caused her to feel regret during an online tutorial, C1 recalled her inability to use the whiteboard and other features of Lyceum when first taking part in the ALE. In Extract 1, she elaborates on this answer at our request. (Note that coding is reproduced throughout C1 as illustration of how it was applied: the description of what goes on appears at the end of each line in a different font, emotion terms are highlighted in colour, underlining indicates verbalization of appraisals and circles are drawn around certain words for emphasis):

**Extract 1:**

30	C1_ Yes, mm, I think it was, this was in the very first session when I used it	1 <sup>st</sup> session
31	for the alternative learning experience rather than the actual face-to-face	ALE vs f2f
32	tutorials, and I guess because there was a lot going on in life and I probably	busy life
33	<u>hadn't spent as much time as I should have done in terms of practising all</u>	no time
34	<u>the facilities that I should have practised, so I was regretful that I hadn't put</u>	no practice
35	<u>more effort into getting proficient with them upfront mm I think I was</u>	not proficient
36	<u>regretful that the package wasn't erm didn't seem to be standardized</u>	software not
37	on the kind of word functions, or any of the office functions which would	like other
38	have made it a lot easier to manipulate in terms of putting the text on and,	difficult use
39	you know, it's a good idea but it could have been based on more standard	good but...
40	technology. But actually, that being said, <u>the regret didn't last very long, I</u>	short effect
41	got to grips with it pretty quickly.	rapid action

C1 explains that her regret comes from not having prepared before the tutorial, particularly not having had the time to learn how to use the different features of Lyceum

(lines 32-35), for which she clearly blames herself – see the emphasis on the first person subject pronoun. Her thoughts that she did not put in the effort that was needed indicate that the event leading to her feeling of regret was very much self-caused, an appraisal of self-agency. However, if the software had been standardized, she would not have had to prepare (lines 36-38) which supports the inference that, on the one hand she appraised the event as unexpected – had Lyceum been like other packages, she would have managed with no problem and there would have been no cause for regret. On the other, the notion of responsibility is expanded to include the assessment that because the software was not like any other she knew, the event was very much caused by circumstances beyond her control. We also learn that her regret was short-lived (line 40) and that she acted on it (line 41), mildly implying the motivational aspect of the emotion: if she understands her regret as relevant to aversive motives – of which at the moment we have little evidence – we can interpret her getting to grips with the technology as wanting to get rid of something painful. As she goes on, we observe that regret is recalled together with two other emotions:

**Extract 2:**

<p>47 C1_ I think I felt regret and annoyance really, that it seemed to be quite</p> <p>48 difficult for somebody who, you know, I'm relatively computer literate and</p> <p>49 it was very annoying erm it was very annoying that either other students</p> <p>50 hadn't managed to get their technology right so that I couldn't hear them,</p> <p>51 people would, you know, things would cut out and cut in, you couldn't</p> <p>52 hear very well (...) mm I think there was a lot of frustration involved.</p>	<p>emotion x 2</p> <p>difficult/savvy</p> <p>annoyed @others</p> <p>no tech ability</p> <p>sound problems</p> <p>frustration</p>
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Roseman et al. (1990) advise that several emotions may be involved in the account of an emotional experience. In Extract 2, C1 reports feeling regretful, annoyed and frustrated. We learnt before that her regret is caused by her inability to use some of the features of Lyceum, and we can see her assertion in line 48 that she is a competent user of the technology as reinforcement of the previously found appraisals of unexpectedness and circumstance-agency – it is her belief that she can use computers and that computers are not new to her, therefore it does come as a surprise that she is unable to use Lyceum; also, because she can use computers and computers are not new to her, finding Lyceum difficult to operate must surely fall outside her accountability. What happens next is that she introduces a new event – other students cannot work out their sound settings properly resulting in failed communication (lines 49-52) – which causes her to feel very annoyed (line 49) and frustrated (line 52). We cannot be certain, however, that at this point she is also regretful. As the aim of the present analysis is to investigate the appraisal pattern of regret, not that of a different emotion, we return to the questionnaire data to remind ourselves of C1's reply to 'What was it in the situation you just described that directly caused you to feel regret?'. Just as this question helped each person to focus on the portion of the experience that led to their regret as opposed to other emotions, the response must also inform the analysis of which event is being appraised. Thus, while it is possible that C1 regrets that other students cannot cope with the technology, her answer 'I did not have enough ability to use the features of the software fully' eliminates the former from being considered for analysis in connection with regret. It is noted with interest, nonetheless, that regret appears concurrently with frustration. Since the analysis

of the questionnaires established a very significant correlation between the two emotions, we remain alert for a reoccurrence in other cases.

To recognize why it is so important for C1 to hone her Lyceum skills, we must ascertain the value that she places on her participation in online tutorials:

### Extract 3

87 C1\_ I did feel some times that the technology was getting in the way of my tchngy=obstacle  
 88 ultimate goal which was to finish the course, to pass the course, to pass it well objective  
 89 and, you know, the technology was getting in the way rather than actually tchngy=obstacle  
 90 helping. vs help  
 (...)
   
 102 I was very **worried** about the constraint that there is to attend the ALE and rules = worry  
 103 to attend it properly otherwise you can't pass your course. **Regret** was there, attend = pass  
 104 but there was a lot of **stress** because of mm a **fear** that it wouldn't all work doesn't work!!  
 105 and I would be prevented from accomplishing what I wanted to accomplish. obstacle 2 goal

C1 is very much aware of the requirement to participate satisfactorily in either the residential school or the ALE in order to successfully complete the year; she does not only want to pass the course but to pass it well (line 88), and she knows that to this purpose she will have to not only attend the ALE but to attend it properly (line 103), which implies actively contributing to tutorials. She has been provided with a tool – Lyceum – that will facilitate her goal. Without Lyceum she would have failed the course, as she was unable to attend the residential school in France due to family commitments – but alas, contrary to its aim, the technology gets in the way (line 89). We know that an appraisal of situational state refers to whether the event that leads to the emotion is consistent or inconsistent with a person's motives. C1's lack of skill to work with

Lyceum is clearly motive-inconsistent: the event eliciting her regret is unwanted, she believes that it makes things worse – if she cannot use the software, she will not be adequately participating in tutorials and will not pass the course.

As happened earlier, C1 expresses regret at the same time as other motive-inconsistent emotions, albeit caused by different events: the constraint to attend the ALE elicits worry (lines 102-103), and the prospect of the technology not working and thwarting her goal causes her stress and fear (lines 104-105). In relation to the latter, her saying ‘I would be *prevented* from accomplishing what I wanted to accomplish’ (our emphasis) seems to suggest her perception that there is very little she can do if a technological mishap brings about her failing the course; she thinks that something can stop her from achieving her goal, something other than her own lack of effort for example, something outside her control. An appraisal of low control potential is characteristic of fear, but is it of regret? Let’s have a look at Extract 4:

**Extract 4:**

69 C1_ Mm, I honestly thought, right, this is <u>painful</u> , this is <u>difficult</u> but	event= pain
70 <u>it's something that's got to be done</u> , so stop moaning and get on with it,	accommodate
71 quite honestly.	feeling
(...)	
75 I probably thought <u>I have to work harder</u> to understand this better next	put in + effort
76 time round, <u>I have to practise more</u> .	put in + effort

Line 69 confirms that the event causing her regret is relevant to aversive motives i.e. she wants to discontinue the pain of finding herself in the situation of not having the skills to function in the online environment. Since it is unavoidable that she completes the ALE

to pass the course – ‘it’s something that’s got to be done’ – she has to accommodate the feeling – ‘stop moaning and get on with it’. There is nothing she can do about her past regret but there is something she can do to prevent the emotion-eliciting event reoccurring in the future: if she works harder and practises more (lines 75-76), the regret that she feels is directly caused by her inability to use Lyceum will disappear with the event itself.

To sum up thus far, appraisal theory claims that emotions are differentiated by appraisals, and that each distinct emotion is elicited by a distinctive pattern of appraisal (Roseman & Smith, 2001). As the person recalling an emotional experience may convey several emotions at once, it is critical that we focus the analysis on the event eliciting regret, if the task ahead is to find out the appraisal pattern of regret. C1 explains that her inability to manipulate the whiteboard and other features of Lyceum causes her to feel regretful. She perceives this event as inconsistent with her motives, as unexpected, as caused by herself but not excluding causation by circumstances beyond anyone’s control, and as unwanted; she thinks that she has little control over the event as it is already in the past, but acknowledges the motivating aspect of the emotion. To test the generalizability of this pattern, we have to seek its replication in other cases. Following the grounds that all situations to which the same appraisal pattern is assigned will evoke the same emotions (Roseman & Smith, 2001), we proceeded by looking at accounts where the regret-eliciting events were similar.

Three cases express regret at having taken part in tutorials in Lyceum – C2, C4 and C10. C4 and C10 are resolute that their feeling had nothing to do with the software itself but

with the behaviour of their tutor. In both cases the event that led to their regret was the tutor not being prepared. As a consequence, they regard their tutorials as a waste of time, as they explain in Extracts 5 and 6 respectively:

**Extract 5:**

37 C4\_ Basically, you know, you meet, you are supposed to meet on a certain date at a  
38 certain time and the tutor doesn't turn up, either because there's no connection or  
39 because she forgets, and you know, we don't get the material before the tutorial, what  
40 we are going to discuss, and I felt at times as if, you know, the tutor wasn't prepared as  
41 much as I would have wanted her to be prepared, to be honest.

**Extract 6:**

14 C10\_ Because I didn't feel the tutor was interested in our responses-he was very keen  
15 to tell us about himself and his abilities, he didn't really engage in conversations mm  
16 (...) I felt it was a waste of time, I felt that way. For example, one evening we had to  
17 listen to Mireille Mathieu singing the full length of La Marseillaise on a record which  
18 was being played down his microphone. It was, it was about ten minutes of listening  
19 to this person singing, it had no relation to anything we needed to listen to (...)  
20 [and I thought] why am I sitting here wasting my time? erm why does he not teach  
21 us something that is more pertinent to the course?

C4 and C10 assess that the situation leading to their regret is very much caused by another person, which already disproves the agency pattern we had observed in C1. Neither of these two cases mention self- or circumstance-causation, but both are definite that their tutors made them regretful by not arriving at a scheduled tutorial, by not sending materials beforehand, by not facilitating conversation, by not making the content relevant to the course; in short, by breaking their students' expectations with



regard to what a language tutor should do. In such context, one would not be surprised if C4 and C10 stopped attending tutorials, yet both ruled out that possibility:

**Extract 7:**

149 **C4\_** When you have this short while, this tiny tutorial once a month, you look forward  
150 to it, because it is the only time you can listen to other people and listen to your tutor.

**Extract 8:**

95 **C10\_** (...) mm the other thing was the other girls I was in contact with at the time (...)  
96 when I knew they were going to be there, it was nice because when we were put into  
97 two rooms, or whatever it was, divided up into rooms to talk about a certain subject,  
98 we used to get on very well, and I used to like to be able to talk to the girls about what  
99 had been said.

Apart from an opportunity to practise their oral skills, C4 and C10 think of tutorials as the social environment of support they need to beat the isolation of distance learning. Therefore, although in a way their tutors are creating an unwanted situation which leads to their feeling of regret, there is no attempt on the students' part to put an end to it by taking action. What we observe instead is that C4 and C10 surrender utterly to an event which they believe makes things worse, an appraisal of situational state – 'the more the sessions went on, the worse my French got because I think my confidence was being nicely chipped away there' (C10) – accepting that they have no ability to control or do something about it:

**Extract 9:**

189 **C4\_** Maybe I was just, you know, a little bit unfortunate of having had this experience.  
190 I was unlucky, that's all, you know, part of life, some you win, some you lose, that's

191 how it is.

**Extract 10:**

176 **C10\_** Oh, it's all right, [laughs] I mean it's life, isn't it? wherever you go, whatever you  
177 do, you are going to meet people who don't understand you or don't feel the way you  
178 do about things and it is just life.

Thus, C4 and C10 recall the same regret-eliciting event – tutors not performing their role in tutorials – perceived as motive inconsistent, as caused by other and with low control potential. We mentioned earlier a third case who also expressed disappointment over having registered for the online version of the course: C2 tells us about his initial excitement at the prospect of using Lyceum, enticed by the interactivity that the technology affords. After a promising start, though, he watches in dismay how student numbers dwindle to the point that at some tutorials he finds himself the only person in class. His regret, he says, is directly caused by the fact that ‘few people bothered to participate, and often those that did, had not prepared adequately’. As in the previous two cases, the event eliciting the emotion is thought to have been caused by someone else, although C2 places the onus on his fellow students, not the tutor.

**Extract 11:**

1 **C2\_** Within two weeks [attendance] had dropped to three people and frequently there  
2 was only one person and that was me. That is a bonus really, I was getting one to one  
3 tuition, which I certainly didn't expect and it was a bonus, but it does actually mm-it's  
4 only half a bonus really because you do want to have the interactivity of talking to other  
5 people of the same level as you, or slightly advanced than you. (...) Regret is that,  
6 having established a self-assurance [that I was not as bad as I thought I was], I wasn't  
7 really able to build on that, to grow and make the classes grow.

Once again at stake is the value that students think exists in attending tutorials: the two previous cases looked for peer support, but C2 seems to seek a practising arena where one can assess one's language skills in comparison to other learners'. Note with interest that he does not regard a one-to-one session with his tutor as the perfect scenario (lines 2-4) but craves the interaction with someone at his own level (lines 4-5), a contest of equals. It would be of little significance to liken yourself to someone who is in a completely different league – tutor and student being two roles separated at least by an imbalance of linguistic ability – but measuring up to your own you can first determine your rank (line 6) and then find the motivation to improve (line 7). However, because other learners do not participate in tutorials, C2 sees himself deprived of that position of growth. His feeling of regret is then motive-inconsistent. As we did in interview with C4 and C10 we put it to him that suspending his taking part in tutorials would serve as a means to prevent an unwanted situation. His response – 'Will I chuck it in? I thought, well, no, I won't because it is better than nothing at all' – confirms that, as before, he perceives he has to accommodate the feeling of regret by also accommodating to a situation about which he is powerless.

Next, just as C2, C4 and C10 shared the event that provoked their regret, so too C6, C7, C15 and C16 wished they had prepared better before an online tutorial, not in terms of lagging in technological prowess as C1 did, but in relation to not having done enough language work to take full advantage of the spoken session. To assert their identity as language learners these four cases also evaluate their performance in competition with other students in their tutorial group, as C6 explains in Extract 12:

**Extract 12:**

1 C6\_ Well, I'm afraid it is just me, I'm one of those people who likes to do everything at  
2 the last possible moment [laughs] you know, if there is no sense of urgency I don't  
3 actually bother to do it, so yes, I was kicking myself on several occasions where  
4 obviously other people had done more preparation, more thinking than I had and I was  
5 there trying to keep very quiet and maintain a little profile, thinking, oh! if I had read  
6 this, or if I had looked at that I could have been taking part now, and now I can't.

(...)

7 There were times when I really did think that mm there were a couple of people who  
8 were very fluent in French, and you think, oh, if I'd spent more time or more effort on  
9 it, I would have been able to take part and probably get more out of it, as well as being  
10 able to put more into it.

It is clear how C6 verbalizes her appraisal of the emotion. She regrets not having done as much preparation as other students (lines 3-4) which results in her hardly participating in class (lines 4-5). The event that her efforts did not fit what she believes is necessary work before a tutorial is perceived as relevant to aversive motives, since not readying oneself for class means not being able to contribute and consequently also forfeiting the chance to take maximum profit (lines 8-10). For this she blames no one but herself – 'If I had read this or if I had looked at that (...) if I had spent more time...' – and she does it by examining her self in relation to those she considers successful language learners – 'There were a couple of people who were very fluent in French' (lines 7-8). There and then she could not have done anything about her regret – 'If I had looked at that I could have been taking part now, *and now I can't.*' (line 6) – but does she find the feeling unpleasant enough to want to undo the situation that caused it in the first place? We think not, until she finds the urgency of it (lines 2-3).

C7 recalls her experience of regret in identical terms. She does not do any preparation before a tutorial because she is very much a last-minute person – appraisal of self-agency – although she adds that the technology lends itself to misdemeanors – ‘I thought sometimes because it is online and the teacher doesn’t really see me I can sort of hide when I don’t know the answer or anything like that.’ She feels regretful when she sees that her fellow classmates speak confidently while she finds herself frantically going through her notes trying to catch up, missing the opportunity to practise and learn – appraisal of situational state – yet she does not always act on the feeling – ‘Every time I said next time I’ll be prepared [laughs] I promised to myself, but sometimes I was and sometimes again I wasn’t.’ In a way we can say that C6 and C7 know that their behaviour does not make them good language learners but at this particular moment in time they do not seem to be too concerned, hence their apparent lack of interest in ending an unwanted situation. C16 and C17 also appraise their arriving at a tutorial unprepared as motive-inconsistent and caused by oneself. However, while they admit that they are accountable for not having done the work, it is not that they do not want to, but that they are at the mercy of life’s circumstances whereby regret becomes frustration, as C16 remarks in Extract 13:

**Extract 13:**

- 1 C16\_ Depending on at what point in the course it was sometimes [regret] might have
- 2 turned a little bit into frustration as well, because, you know, studying distance learning
- 3 and having a family and working and so on, there’s a lot to do and then sometimes, you
- 4 know, you try so hard but you always fall behind.

The next few cases present the opposite scenario: C3, C12 and C5 thoroughly prepare ahead of a tutorial but then find it difficult to speak and thus contribute to the session in a productive manner. Their regret is directly caused by them knowing that they can do better and have let themselves down. C3 puts it all down to her lack of confidence and the pace of interaction in the online environment:

**Extract 14:**

1 C3\_ Yeah, sometimes I know the answers but I don't get there in time so it passes me  
2 by, you know, somebody else has answered. This is the situation more with Lyceum,  
3 you see, in a face to face there's more opportunity to break in I suppose mm but mm if  
4 that's me it's because I am not a very confident person and it takes me time to get my  
5 head around together to think of an answer, by the time I thought it the time is gone.

Because in Lyceum one does not have visual contact with other participants in the conference, interaction works on the back of clicking a hand-button to indicate one's willingness to speak; the system tracks the order in which the hand-button was pressed and that serves to designate who is next in line to take the floor. In lines 1-2 C3 explains that she is not fast enough on the button, which means that, even though she may have an answer ready, somebody gets ahead of her. She does mention that in a face-to-face classroom this would be less likely to happen to her (lines 2-3) but even then, she does not think that the system is the cause of her regret but her own lack of confidence in her abilities (lines 4-5). Attending a tutorial where for the most part one remains quiet, not because they have not prepared and fear an awkward situation where they may be found out as we have seen before, but because of a self-imposed internal restraint, will

not count as a fruitful occasion. See in Extract 15 how C12, who also finds that poor confidence often beats her to the button, understands this as a very personal ordeal:

**Extract 15:**

1 C12\_ Exactamente, y aparte es como, durante el momento, o sea mientras, es como una  
2 lucha contigo misma, venga, venga, que lo puedes hacer, pero venga, que te lo sabes, y  
3 ahí cuando pierdes la oportunidad es como, no sé, como una decepción contigo misma,  
4 como pero bueno, o sea por qué no has sido capaz de apretar el botón, decir, la idea aquí  
5 es practicar, pues practicar, y aunque estuviera mal, qué mas daba, entonces es una  
6 sensación (...) como una pequeña derrota contigo misma. (...) y es un momento en el que  
7 te ves cómo tú mismo te limitas, o sea cómo tú mismo puedes hacer mucho más de lo  
8 que haces y eres tú mismo quien decide no hacerlo, por algún motivo equis.

1 C12\_ Exactly, it is like an internal struggle, come on, come on, you can do it, you know  
2 the answer, and then when you miss the opportunity it is like you have let yourself  
3 down like, come on, why have you not pressed the button? The thing here is to practise,  
4 well then go and practise, even if it is the wrong answer, it doesn't matter. It feels like,  
5 like you lost a small battle against yourself, and it is a moment when you see how you  
6 limit yourself, I mean, how you can do much more than what you are doing but it is  
7 yourself who decides not to do it, for whatever reason.

C12's recall of regret is a struggle between answering a question – even if wrong – and getting the practice she goes to a tutorial for on the one hand, and on the other not being able to answer a question because of the barriers that she has built around herself. It is a struggle that ends in self-defeat, which she finds regretful. The appraisal of self-agency – that the event is very much caused by oneself – is once again at the core of the emotional experience: it is C12 limiting her own performance, as opposed to having others involved, or circumstances beyond anyone's control. As she speaks of fighting and

losing a battle with herself, we get the impression that the control potential is also minimal, as if as long as she remains her own enemy, she will continue to let her chances to improve her oral skills go by.

For C5 it is not lack of confidence that hampers her contribution to an online tutorial, but her desire to speak the perfect sentence. In Extract 16 we find out more:

**Extract 16:**

1 C5\_ Mm I think for me, I'm a perfectionist by nature (...), but definitely one of the  
2 things I find, about Lyceum, is that in a way I suppose because you can't see other  
3 people and you can't see the body language and some times when everybody is  
4 effectively putting their hands up at the same time figuratively speaking mm to speak  
5 and things like that, I do find sometimes I miss the opportunity and occasionally I'm  
6 thinking through what my answer is going to be, probably panicking a little bit, or  
7 somebody's got there a little bit before me, and then maybe the moment is passed, and  
8 I didn't say something and I've been the silent group member and the reason for that  
9 regret is because I then feel that I haven't given the tutor the opportunity to see what  
10 I'm capable of.

The picture that C5 presents of her regret is very similar to that of C3 and C12: it is the accepted protocol of the online environment – no eye contact, fastest finger on the button – that if she takes too long thinking about what she wants to say, eventually somebody else will chip in ahead of her. As she ends up 'the silent group member' her regret kicks in: 'I haven't given the tutor the opportunity to see what I'm capable of'. For a person to invite such public exposure the implication must certainly be not of personal struggle as C12 reports, but tremendous self-belief. In reality, however, we find that it is not so much about professing one's linguistic skill as being recognized in a role:



**Extract 16:**

1 C5\_(...) sometimes of course you want to try and be one of the early ones or one of the  
2 first people, so that, you know, you do think, you get then the impression that the  
3 teacher will think that you have something to contribute.

Let us recapitulate. C5 expresses regret at not speaking up during a tutorial and therefore not giving herself the opportunity to demonstrate to her tutor what she can do. She wants her tutor to know how good she is and not achieving her goal gives rise to the negative emotion – appraisal of situational state. The appraisal of self-agency is equally notable: she does have to comply with the rules of interaction in Lyceum, but it is her taking too much time to think of the perfectly correct answer that provokes the situation she feels regretful about. What we observe in C5 that calls for our attention is that in her recalling of regret she anticipates the tutor's interpretation of the online tutorial and how s/he is likely to react to the students' behaviour. That is, C5 believes that if she is not one of the first to click on the hand-button to speak (line 1 in Extract 16), her tutor will think that she has nothing to say (lines 2-3). In other words, because Lyceum is a social environment where individuals interact with each other and the computer, there is not only need to obey the rules of interaction imposed by the technology, but also to consider the implications of being evaluated by others as a means to maintain a social bond. If tutors see that nobody in their class is inclined to speak, they will indeed pass judgement on the situation – are students lazy?, am I a good tutor?, are the materials not suitable? – which irrevocably will damage the social fabric of the online tutorial in terms of the respect that tutors and students must feel for each other. As an example, if we

return briefly to those previously analysed cases which showed a strong appraisal of other-agency, we clearly see the emotional impact of gauging the actions of others involved in an online tutorial: C2 reproached his fellow language learners their lax commitment to attend the spoken sessions; for C4 and C10 every minute spent in the online environment was made miserable by their tutors; as a result, we believe that the esteem which ties tutors and students and students themselves to function socially is lost. What makes these cases different from C5 is that they do not anticipate either their tutors' or other students' definition of a tutorial – their expectations for the online session clash. C5, on the other hand, thinks that her tutor recognizes the online tutorial as a forum where language learners are given the chance to practise their oral skills, and that if she does not press the hand-button, her tutor will interpret that as intent not to speak, hence her regret. But is this type of social assessment part of the appraisal pattern of the emotion? Two new cases – C17 and C9 – will help us elucidate the matter.

C17 writes in her questionnaire that the event that caused her to feel regret was being paired up to work in a breakout room in Lyceum with someone whose spoken French was weak. When we prompt her to describe the incident she replies the following:

**Extract 17:**

- 1 C17\_ Well, of course this was not helping me much, obviously but mm I think if you
- 2 mm get together with people to learn languages and don't do it on your own then you-
- 3 well one is supposed to help the other, I think that is important but mm of course it was
- 4 the end of the day and I was often very very tired mm it's an hour later than it is in
- 5 England and sometimes it did annoy me when people were so very hesitant about

6 speaking, yeah? I mean-I had the feeling that so many people are so frightened of being  
 7 judged, this can-I mean this can really be a block to speaking freely and mm-no, I didn't  
 8 mind doing the pair exercises, I thought that was ok but mm you need to pair up with  
 9 people who are on your level.

C17 appraises the event leading to her regret in a manner that fits in with prior accounts.

The first line already indicates that the situation is not to her liking: it does not help her to have to speak to someone who is below her linguistic level because, assuming that she wants to improve her own abilities, she does not see how a person with poor spoken French can be in a position to challenge her – remember that C2 also wanted to interact with a partner, if not above, at least of his own level. Therefore, the event is inconsistent with her motives. It is also appraised as caused by other, and since she had no saying in choosing whom she had to go into a breakout room with – it is normally the tutor who arranges pairwork – the control potential is low as well. We later learn that she is inclined to avoid the unwanted situation by actually accommodating to it – ‘Well, I’m a polite person so of course I stick it out, but mm you have to, yeah?’. Her comments on the fear of language learners when they have to speak in front of others (lines 6-7) in our opinion signify social appraisal. In a sense, C17 expects to be paired up with someone who is scared to speak – ‘so many people are so frightened’. In her regret she anticipates that the reaction of her fellow students when having to participate in conversation – and let us be reminded that what defines a tutorial is its aim to provide oral practice – is one of fear; when she is sent to do pairwork with one of them, she simply wishes she had not.

C9 explains that she has 'an active sense of humour' and regrets not knowing how well something is received in Lyceum, for example a joke:

**Extract 18:**

1 C9\_ Yes, because you can't see their expressions and you have to click on talk, you  
2 wouldn't click on talk just to laugh, so that takes a certain amount of it away, and the  
3 problem, from the person who is cracking the joke, I mean if the tutor comes back and  
4 says something, well that's fine, you think that was well received but you don't know,  
5 you think sometimes people might think you are being flippant and not serious [laughs]  
6 (...)  
7 I think sometimes when you say something and if there is no response from the tutor,  
8 which could be nothing to do with what you said, they could just be thinking about the  
9 next step that they are going to do and [you feel as] if you've said something wrong, so  
10 you don't talk afterwards [laughs].

C9 is, by her own description, a naturally funny person. The enjoyment of sharing a joke lies in the knowledge that it has been well received. For her, not having direct access to the reaction of others is a matter for regret: most probably she cracks a joke to make other people laugh, not knowing whether or not her goal was achieved is equivalent to not achieving it – appraisal of situational state, the event made things worse. There is no indication that she appraises the event as caused by her; instead the source can be thought to be the online environment: Lyceum does not allow any visual contact among participants other than a list of names, and communication is made a bit stilted by the fact that one has to press a talk-button when they want to be heard – laughter, which should indeed be spontaneous, does not qualify in C9's opinion to be transmitted via the software (lines 1-2). What worries C9 is the idea that other students in her tutorial group

may think that her jokes go a tad too far (line 5). The episode evolves as follows: C9 tries a humorous comment in her online class; she ignores whether or not her classmates think it is funny, so she leaves herself exposed to their judgement, and as a consequence risks losing their respect – social appraisal.

We conclude by looking at the three cases who did not talk about regret. C18 explained that regret is not an emotion she would associate with her learning. C13 excused herself by saying that her positive nature helps her forget episodes where things do not go according to plan. C8, who combined her French studies with an Italian course, reflected on the value of attending tutorials when we queried her about not feeling regret:

**Extract 19:**

1 C8\_ No, not really because I, actually my Italian is slightly better so I didn't need to  
2 practise it as such, and the level we were doing at the tutorial I could cope easily with  
3 that, so I was basically just listening, you know. One thing that I did get from the  
4 tutorial was that it was good to sort of hear the level of the other students' language, to  
5 see if I could judge myself against them, (...) so it's good to hear the other people and,  
6 you get the reassurance that you are at the same level and, you know, if you make  
7 mistakes, then other people do as well and they are similar mistakes and you can learn  
8 from that. No, I think you gain something, even though I didn't sort of get much Italian  
9 from it.

C8 believes that she does not have to attend tutorials to improve her language skills (lines 1-2). Instead, what she seeks from a tutorial is the opportunity to assess her level in comparison with her classmates (lines 3-5) and to learn from the mistakes of others as her own (lines 6-8). As long as there is gain (line 8), her goal of learning the language remains on course, therefore no negative emotion arises.

To sum up, it was the aim of this analysis to find out the pattern of regret as verbalized by language learners in their accounts of events leading to the emotion during online tutorials. Appraisal theory claims that emotions are elicited by our evaluation of events in relation to our goals (Roseman & Smith, 2001). We constantly compare our goal and our perception of how its pursuit is going (Schutz & DeCuir, 2002). An appraisal of situational state – whether the event is consistent or inconsistent with a person's motives – differentiates positive from negative emotions: events appraised as relatively consistent with what one wants elicit positive emotions, and events appraised as relatively inconsistent with what one wants elicit negative emotions, hence regret, for instance (Roseman et al., 1996). Our findings both in the questionnaires and interviews corroborate this pattern of motive-inconsistency.

Roseman et al. (1996), Roseman (2001) and van Dijk and Zeelenberg (2002) conclude that an appraisal of self-agency – thinking that the event was caused by oneself – predicts regret. Our results, however, are less definite. We find in the questionnaires that regret is appraised as self-caused only when recalled in the first instance. In Experience 2, respondents indicated that the event leading to their feeling of regret was not at all caused by them, but by someone else or by circumstances beyond anyone's control. Interviews substantiate this outcome: some cases show a strong appraisal of self-agency, but in other cases we observe that subjects think that another person is involved in causing the event. When circumstances beyond anyone's control are mentioned, these often implicate the online environment, which invites us to think that Lyceum plays a significant role in the generation of the emotion. The language learner's self is not a self

in isolation but in relation to others; in those cases where the appraisal of self-agency is low, we find that the subject anticipates the emotional reaction of other participants in the online conference, bearing in mind the constraints of the medium. This sort of social appraisal then becomes part of their experience of regret.

Roseman et al. (1996) and Roseman (2001) predict that regret is elicited by an appraisal of low control potential, while van Dijk and Zeelenberg's study of 2002 shows that regret is appraised as thinking that one could do something about the event. Our own conclusions are equally contrasting: while questionnaire data indicated that respondents believe in their ability to control the event eliciting regret, most of our interviewees see themselves powerless. There is, however, a motivational aspect to the emotion, which at times will help language learners to focus on their work in an effort to avoid the reoccurrence of the painful situation.

Finally, an appraisal of unexpectedness figures significantly in both questionnaires and interviews, but is absent from the literature that we have reviewed.

#### *4.3.4 The appraisal pattern of pride*

The analysis of frequencies per appraisal dimension of the questionnaire-data showed that the pride-eliciting event, recalled by subjects in both the first and second experiences, was highly appraised as consistent with what one wanted – situational state; as wanting to keep something pleasurable – motivational state; as being certain about its consequences – probability; as very much caused by oneself and not at all caused by another person or circumstances beyond anyone's control, and as perceiving

there was something one could do about it – control potential. The event was also appraised as unexpected, although not as notably. An appraisal of problem type was not relevant, since it serves to predict motive-inconsistent emotions. In this light we looked at interviews to find out how this pattern was verbalized, if actually replicated.

Twelve out of the seventeen cases considered for analysis recalled an episode of pride in connection with a tutorial in Lyceum. C3, C5, C6, C7, C16 and C17 all experienced pride as a sense of achievement caused by being able to use the foreign language proficiently both as individuals and in a group. In Extract 20 C5 begins to clarify this:

**Extract 20:**

1 C5\_ For me the pride stuff is all about, when you've done something very well,  
2 something particularly you have not been looking forward to, which is often the case for  
3 me when I go to the Lyceum sessions, that you know it's going to stretch you, or I  
4 certainly do because it's certainly my weakest area, and when you know that you had a  
5 good session, you've done particularly well and actually particularly when it's coming  
6 up to exam time and you start to do the oral presentation, for me that's a really great  
7 motivator when you do it and think, oh, I can talk for three minutes for four minutes,  
8 'cos I think it is quite difficult to practise those kind of things at home and on your own,  
9 and for me is hugely motivating and that's when I get my best feelings of pride.

For C5 it is not just doing well that elicits pride, but doing well in a situation where she feels challenged: we learn that speaking is not one of her strengths (line 4) and that, as tutorials are aimed at developing learners' spoken skills, she finds the online sessions demanding (line 3) and not an occasion that she anticipates with pleasure (line 2). She makes specific reference to the assessment exercise (lines 5-6), which involves students giving a short presentation and then taking part in a group discussion. As such, exam



rehearsal becomes meaningful when it is done in interaction with one's peers (line 8). Since she manages to do her presentation well, she judges her goals are being met – what has happened improves her chances to pass the course, for instance – therefore she feels proud; had she thought that her attempt to speak for the required three or four minutes was not successful, she would have felt angry, regretful, frustrated, disappointed with herself, maybe even surprised, that is to say, a negative emotion. Moreover, we could perhaps read an appraisal of unexpectedness in the fact that the tutorial, which she envisaged would be painful, was not as bad as she had foreseen, seeing as the outcome of it was that she did well. Causation by the self is clear: no other person or circumstance taints her responsibility in the arousal of her pride. Furthermore, the sense of achievement is tied to a great surge in motivation (line 9). C16 advances this line of reasoning:

**Extract 21:**

1 C16\_ Confidence, it gives you confidence, you know, when you've mastered a task well,  
2 it just gives you confidence for the next task, and the next task, you know. It's kind of,  
3 you've done it once, you can do it again, and when you are confident about  
4 approaching a task then the result tends to be a bit better, because right from the  
5 beginning you are pretty sure that you can do it.

C16 relates her sense of accomplishment to confidence: you do well in a task and immediately you know that you can do it again, you are then more confident to tackle the next task and also succeed at it. Achievement generates confidence, confidence in turn facilitates achievement, which again translates into more confidence, and so on;

such is the motivational aspect of pride. Thus far, we have observed that pride exists within the boundaries of the personal: it is one's individual struggle to take part in a tutorial, one's judgement on how well it goes and also one's pleasure in a positive outcome. In the next extract, as C5 explains why it does not affect her that other students in her tutorial group are more fluent or know more vocabulary than her, she brings the emotion into a more public arena:

**Extract 22:**

1 C5\_ (...) that actually almost doesn't matter as long as you get some kind of feeling of  
2 encouragement from your teacher at the end, you know, for example, when they say  
3 that you've done enough to get through the exam, or you know, that will be fine, it's  
4 the right level and those kind of things. I find those hugely motivating and of course  
5 they give you that feeling of pride, (...) when you have a good session and your  
6 teacher's given you quite a bit of encouragement, it's actually interesting that I find it's  
7 the encouraging words rather than words perhaps where, you know, it gives you room  
8 for improvement that you take away, and then I find that for the next week or the next  
9 two weeks before we meet again on Lyceum, that can have a huge motivating effect for  
10 me, just in actually carrying on doing the course work itself, you know, you kind of  
11 feel that it is worthwhile to carry on.

As before, we hear pride and motivation in the same breadth. In this case, it is the words of encouragement from the tutor – not feedback on how to fix your grammar but actual praise (lines 6-8) – that make C5 feel proud (lines 4-5). Consequently, our interpretation is that pride, in this case, is caused by other rather than the self. However, we do not think that the personal assessment of pride is here excluded – C5 individually appraises the session as positive (line 5) and as prompting her tutors' encouragement (line 6);

indeed what we have is the public recognition of private efforts by someone in a position of authority, which in our opinion redoubles the sense of achievement, and equally the learners' motivation (lines 9-11). In Extract 23, C7 highlights the motivating role of the tutor:

**Extract 23:**

1 C7\_ You don't really know the other students in a classroom like that that well, so they  
2 are not really an important factor I guess, but the tutor is because the tutor is constant  
3 and also the tutor gives you - reads your essays and stuff, you know, so the tutor knows  
4 a little bit more about you and when the tutor acknowledges your good work you feel  
5 good about it. (...) I always feel more motivated when the tutor mm someone I look up  
6 to, in this case it would be the tutor, you know, recognizes my good work and you  
7 know, gives me that feedback, I always work well under that kind of circumstances. I  
8 need that, really, that kind of motivation to do even more.

C7 grounds the tutor's influence as she describes him as someone whom she respects (lines 5-6); a steady presence throughout her studies (line 2) – we assume in contrast to the passing existence of her fellow learners at tutorials; someone who reads her assignments and therefore knows about her (lines 3-4): he knows how much she has put into it and how far she has come. This is the reason why his praise could not be gratuitous, so when it comes, it is once more an endorsement of the student's efforts, and for C7 a necessary push to work harder (lines 7-8).

While C7 seems neither to have forged a relationship with her peers online nor be unfazed by this (lines 1-2), in other cases we observe that, as in the analysis of regret, the company of others serves as a means of comparison, from which some obtain pride:

**Extract 24:**

1 C6\_ Mmmm erm yeah, it was quite reassuring that other people were actually  
2 stumbling and stumbling even more than I was [laughs] so I'd come out and think, you  
3 know? I did really well on that.

**Extract 25:**

1 C3\_ It's just mm this constant feeling that everybody else can do better than me and  
2 you know, is much more advanced than I am mm, it's not exactly a pleasant feeling and  
3 therefore if you are actually successful and manage to hold your own, then of course  
4 you feel, you know, oh, yeah, that was brilliant!

Extracts 24 and 25 show that personal achievement is measured against the achievement of others; pride is very much caused by oneself, but a self in relation to others, not in isolation. For C6, in the comparison lies the reassurance that on one hand her troubles are shared, and on the other that she is not the worst in the class, hence her pride. For C3, accustomed to feeling the pain of judging herself one of the weakest in the group (lines 1-2), success equals pleasure – 'Oh, yeah, that was brilliant!'.

All subjects in the cases hitherto analysed report that, as soon as they go offline, they seek their families, mainly their husbands, to tell them about what happened at the tutorial, so that the pride they feel in the classroom flows into their personal lives outside the classroom. C13 explains the importance of sharing the emotion in Extract 26:

**Extract 26:**

1 C13\_ If I had been doing this entirely in isolation, then nobody would have known how  
2 difficult it was for me to go up and do that tutorial, nobody would have known what a  
3 buzz I got after doing the tutorial, so it wouldn't have meant - you know, if I said to my

4 mum, you know, I've just passed my French, she would be pleased for me that I passed  
5 my French, but my husband knows how difficult it was for me to do the course because  
6 all of the time I was saying "I really don't want to go to this tutorial" and then I'd go  
7 anyway, and I'd come back downstairs and say "now actually it wasn't as bad as I  
8 thought it was going to be", you know, so he knew how hard it was.

In our view, the first three lines of C13's account are highly significant. 'If I had been doing this entirely in isolation', that is, if besides being a distance learner separated from peers and tutor, I did not have the comfort of an inner circle outside the classroom, then 'nobody would have known how difficult it was (...) what a buzz I got after doing the tutorial', i.e. I would not have had any un-requested emotional support. We noted earlier that tutors are vital in providing encouragement and that recognition from them is the safeguard of one's academic prowess. Tutors would also normally look after the emotional well-being of students in class, but outside class, if students need that kind of help, they would usually have to ask for it, in the sense that they would have to contact their tutor and bring their problem to his or her attention. In contrast, for the most part, families are there 24/7 and unconditionally. Here is the idea in Extract 26: it is the recognition of the pain – '[my husband] knew how hard it was' (line 8) – which makes C13's pride greater when the pride-eliciting event is shared, not just with any person, but with the person who was there to witness how difficult it was for her to go to the tutorial. Compare her experience to C1's telling in the next extract that she does not share her moment of pride with anyone:

**Extract 27:**

1 C1\_ I didn't necessarily tell anybody, I was just mm proud of myself, really (...) because  
 2 I think my family would have said, well what do you expect? you lived there for so  
 3 long, that's normal, that's, so what? [laughs] yeah.

As she puts it, it is normal that C1 keeps her pride to herself (line 1): she does not expect from her family the kind of emotional support that C13 – and other cases like C13 – looked for in her partner because, after living in France for a number of years (lines 2-3), the inference is that she does speak the language well and attending a tutorial does not represent for her the struggle that it represents for C13. C1's words reinforce our reasoning above: the absence of pain from the event does not necessarily mean that the feeling of pride is diminished but that it stays within the realm of the private. Let's look at C1 more closely.

In the questionnaire data C1 recalls her realization that the quality of her language was superior to other students' – for example, her knowledge of rarely used vocabulary – as the source of her pride. In Extract 28 she adds detail to her response:

**Extract 28:**

1 C1\_ Well, the fact that I had lived in France for nine years meant that, I think my  
 2 exposure to historical and popular culture plus the range of vocabulary that I had, it  
 3 was actually quite a bit more extensive than quite a few more people on the course, so  
 4 the tutor often referred to me as a bit of a reference and would say "well, do you know  
 5 this? or what do you think about that?" which yes, I did feel a bit quite proud of.

We have to be careful here not to read an appraisal of circumstance-agency: C1 justifies her advanced knowledge of French vocabulary in her long stay in the country (line 1),

but is living in France the cause of her pride? She could have said that she improved her vocabulary listening to French radio, reading French papers on the internet or twittering in French; in our view, the fact that she lived there is only one way of explaining her level of vocabulary, but not the cause of her pride. The cause of the emotion is the assessment that her language is above standard, and she is the sole agent of that event. How or when she acquired her skills should not be pertinent to the appraisal of agency. However, as we observed in previous cases, to be able to take pride in her abilities, C1 needs her peers: yes, her language is very good – it is in fact ‘superior’, she says – but to arrive at this point she has compared herself to her tutorial group and concluded that she outdoes them all (line 3). It is our thinking then, that others are there not as direct cause of pride, but in support of the self-agency claim. Also, lines 4-5 make interesting reading – ‘the tutor often referred to me as a bit of a reference and would say, well, do you know this? or what do you think about that?’. Let’s imagine a very likely scenario: tutor and students are online; someone has a query relating to a vocabulary item; the tutor, aware of C1’s expertise, decides not to answer himself and instead invites her to do it; this deliberate call for her to partake in his role fills C1 with pride. In the following extract we know exactly why:

**Extract 29:**

1 C1\_ I certainly respected the tutor an enormous amount and praise from him certainly  
2 did make me feel very proud, but it was nice to have it said right in front of everybody  
3 else as well.

The occurrence is not new: C1's sense of achievement comes from knowing that she is better than her peers; having this acknowledged by the person in authority – 'I respected the tutor an enormous amount' – makes it a greater feat. However, note the emphasis on praise being public – 'it was nice to have it said right in front of everybody else' – which, in this case, gives the emotion an almost exhibitory quality, as if C1 took pride in asserting her advantage over weaker students, not of her own accord, but as a result of the tutor's actions. Naturally, the feeling is of immense pleasure and one that she wants not only to keep, but repeat – appraisal of motivational state:

**Extract 30:**

- 1 R\_ What did you think at the time?
- 2 C1\_ Ooooooh, gosh what did I think of? It was a really big warm feeling of wow, this is
- 3 great! I want to do more of this! [laughs].

Lastly, we see more evidence that distance learners need praise to build up confidence that helps motivation:

**Extract 31:**

- 1 C1\_ I suppose it sort of gives you the confidence to keep-keep going with things, it's
- 2 more motivational, certainly (...) because it is very lonely doing the OU, home you
- 3 know mm, independent study really, and that's a big, if you get recognition it's a big
- 4 push to keep you going.

C9 is very similar to C1 in that the emotion-eliciting event also involves the self-evaluation of her language level: she recalls feeling pride when she answered a question that nobody in her tutorial group could answer:



**Extract 32:**

1 C9\_ Well, because I speak French fluently I try and sit back, because it's not fair on the  
 2 others, and mm I generally wait. If there's a question going that nobody can do or  
 3 nobody got the right answer then I would say "well, I think it's this", and I think, yeah,  
 4 I've got a really good level of language, and then I feel pride, it's sort of competitive  
 5 really, I suppose.

C9's fluent French makes her proud, but as in the other cases, the emotion arises on the back of her being able to assess her proficiency in competition with her online classmates. Note how, compared to C1, C9 is more subtle: in saying that she speaks the language effortlessly she establishes for us the context that she is better than her peers, but there is no direct reference to them other than that she lets them have their chance to speak – 'because it is not fair on the others'. Her pride is simply a quiet display of ability, which, on the other hand, does not go unnoticed, as she explains in Extract 33:

**Extract 33:**

1 C9\_ I think the camaraderie amongst the students, especially when we go off and work  
 2 in groups in separate rooms is very strong. Sometimes it can be very competitive and  
 3 they can be quite sort of short with you if they feel that you are way ahead of them and-  
 4 but most people would say "gosh, your French is really good, how do I say this?" or  
 5 whatever, and vice versa, if somebody doesn't know something, you can say "oh, if you  
 6 say it like this, that might be better" and they appreciate it.

C9 discusses how other students in a breakout room – where the tutor is not present – react to her when they realize that her language is more advanced. While some dislike it – 'they can be quite sort of short with you' – others are grateful for her help, requested or unrequested. In turn, her peers' behaviour also has an effect on C9:

**Extract 34:**

- 1 R\_ How does that make you feel?
- 2 C9\_ I think the camaraderie is just nice because it's warm and friendly erm when the
- 3 competition part comes in and they don't want you to talk, I just don't talk, I say fine, ok
- 4 [laughs] I don't feel as if it's not very nice, obviously it's not nice but I don't feel upset
- 5 about it, if you know what I mean, but I just stop talking.

The source of C9's pride is knowing that she has a good level of French. Because she has a good level of the language, she is in a position to help her online classmates, in which case, she feels good (line 2). However, there are also those who resent her skills, and her reaction to their curtness is to stop talking (line 3). The idea of the language tutorial as a social setting comes to the fore yet again. Language learners have to establish and maintain social ties with other learners if the tutorial is to be successful in giving everyone the opportunity to speak. The situation with C9 is that some students in her tutorial group possibly feel threatened by her excellence; their solidarity appears to exclude her (line 3 in Extract 33). She may not be upset at their behaviour (lines 4-5) but the circumstances are nonetheless unpleasant and unwanted, as she at least forfeits her due practice. What she is doing is reacting to the emotional response of her classmates towards her: in favourable conditions she will participate fully and feel pride; in contrast, if she anticipates an unfriendly reception, she will remain silent – it is likely that her pride still exists as she knows her language is good, but the moment has given way to a negative feeling. The fact that she interprets the emotional reaction of her peers, which then has an effect on her own emotional response, is evidence that in this case

social appraisal elicits pride – as in “My pride was caused by my judging that the emotional response of my peers was positive towards me”.

We found just one other case where the emotional input of others has an influence on the elicitation of pride. C18, an actress by profession, recalls a time where she used her work skills to perform a task with a comic touch during an online tutorial. In the questionnaire, she remarks that it made her feel proud that ‘everyone reacted in a positive way and made the effort to provide positive feedback’. In Extract 35 she provides further detail:

**Extract 35:**

1 C18\_ Oh yes, I did [laughs] I remember we were doing one thing where I suppose some  
2 of my skills mm that I do have, came into play so we had to do sort of a small dialogue  
3 so we kind of made it quite funny and I suppose, yeah I did feel pride because it was a  
4 piece of work that went down well and you know, it made - I suppose it made the gags  
5 a bit, you know? not being face to face, it made it kind of ok because people were  
6 laughing and you know, responding in quite a natural way to it. (...) It does - it makes  
7 you want to participate more, you know, because other people are enjoying what you  
8 are doing and there's just a general - a better air of communication I think between you.

Lines 2-6 help elucidate her questionnaire answer: the funny dialogue that she does with a partner is well-received by her online classmates (line 4) – positive reaction; they laugh (lines 5-6), which means that they had to click on the ‘talk’ button in Lyceum to be heard – effort to provide positive feedback. We read an appraisal of self-agency in that her pride is caused by her telling a funny story, but as in previous cases we observe that others’ appreciation of one’s achievement functions as a reward intensifying the

emotion. An appraisal of motivational state is verbalized in lines 6-7 as C18 expresses her desire to repeat the pleasurable event – ‘it makes you want to participate more’. If we understand that her pride is also the effect of her registering the emotional response of her peers – ‘other people are enjoying what you are doing’ (lines 7-8) – then social appraisal is clear. However, because it is a comic piece that she performs, we assume that it is her intention to make students laugh. Thus, as she completes her goal we think that social appraisal in this case is not different from an appraisal of situational state, i.e. what happened was consistent with her motives.

Next, like C1 and C9, C2 indicates feeling pride in relation to finding that his level of language is better than his peers’. Unlike C1 and C9 though, he seems displeased with the occurrence of the emotion:

**Extract 36:**

1 C2\_ Well, without meaning it to be arrogant (...) but I did find that I was, I was ahead of  
2 my peer group, and especially in the non-tutorial set-up we used to meet up (...) and  
3 the - the two other women that were on the course with me, they almost treated me as a  
4 tutor because I knew more than them, (...) mm now that's - you know, that's flattering  
5 and you feel a bit of pride in a way but actually, I used to play tennis and the whole  
6 thing about playing a sport is you want to play with somebody who is slightly better  
7 than you so you can learn from it, you know, and if you are playing tennis, to continue  
8 the analogy, with somebody that - with somebody who is much weaker than you, well  
9 they are getting a free lesson and you are not getting exercise at all, really. You know  
10 what I mean? So there was a little bit of pride but that was only felt for a short time.

C2 feels ‘a bit of pride’ (line 5) when his online study group treat him as a tutor because he knows more than them (lines 3-4). His pride, however, is short-lived (line 10) and in

contrast to the experiences of other interviewees, it seems as if C2 considers the emotion inappropriate, almost unwanted. Our thinking is that he does not see any achievement in the fact that he is ahead of his peers, thus he reads flattery in their words (line 4) and not the recognition of an effort, because indeed, in his eyes, there is no effort. As he puts it himself, his game is against weaker opponents who lack the ability to challenge him linguistically. It is because it seems that he is being cheated of the opportunity to feel proud for himself that his pride is not real, replaced by a thought that things should not be the way they are. So an emotion which in all preceding cases has been appraised as motive consistent, is for C2 motive inconsistent – pride felt in this manner does nothing for his goal of learning a language.

The last case we look at in connection with pride is C12, with whom we see a return to the idea of accomplishment, yet of a very private nature, as she talks of conquering her fears:

**Extract 37:**

1 C12\_ Que digo que me siento más orgullosa cuando soy capaz de entrar a una pregunta  
2 lanzada en general, no específicamente a mí, porque para mí significa eso, que vences  
3 todos esos, todas esas luchas internas y miedos. (...) te sientes, dices, ves? esta vez lo he  
4 hecho (risas)

1 C12 \_ I feel very proud when I can answer not a question that I've been asked directly  
2 but an open question, because for me that means that I've conquered my fears, that  
3 internal struggle, and you tell yourself, see? this time you did it [laughs].

The appraisal of self-agency is significant in C12's account: pride is not elicited by her use of the language being better than others but from fighting a very personal battle – being able to answer a question addressed not at her individually but at the tutorial group as a whole. Remember that C12 spoke in identical terms when she recalled an experience of regret: then she regretted her failure to conquer the barriers that she built around herself and impeded her from claiming her speaking turn at the online tutorial; now, barriers overcome, she feels proud to have won the battle. While her regret was motive inconsistent, her pride is relevant to appetitive motives on two fronts: one, academic – she gets some language practice; the second, her own, as we can see in Extract 38:

**Extract 38:**

1 C12\_ Es bueno en el sentido en el que cada vez que participas estás practicando, o sea  
2 que realmente estás siguiendo el objetivo de la clase que es practicar un idioma, y luego  
3 personalmente, pues también, porque, pues eso, eh, pasas una serie de barreras y te  
4 sientes, pues eso, mejor.

1 C12\_ It is good in the sense that every time that you take part you are practising, that is  
2 you really are pursuing the tutorial's objective which is to practise the language, and  
3 then at a personal level it is also good because you overcome a series of barriers and you  
4 feel, well, better.

Later, the statement 'I feel as if-you are looking forward to doing it again' shows an appraisal of motivational state – wanting to get or keep something pleasurable.

We conclude this section by paying attention to those cases who did not report an episode of pride, in total five out of the seventeen interviewees, which in our opinion

can be explained in contrast to our findings thus far. As we determined the importance of recognition from others in the elicitation of pride, it makes perfect sense that C4 and C10, who both blamed their tutors for their unsatisfactory experience in Lyceum, did not feel pride during their tutorials. For C15, a resident of France, the online sessions did not provide the same opportunities to feel a sense of achievement as a visit to her local market – ‘it’s more French than what I would have had in any discussion with other people in the group, apart from the tutor’. Likewise, C11 recalls having felt pride after learning that she passed the course but not during tutorials, which she regarded as perfectly undemanding. And finally, while in most of the analysed cases comparing oneself to peers supported the occurrence of pride, for C8 such comparison is devoid of value:

**Extract 39:**

1 C8\_ I tend to sort of work and think quite independently, I always judge myself on my  
2 standards, and I set expectations for myself and that’s how I judge whether I’m feeling,  
3 you know, happy, content, frustrated or whatever.

In summary, the analysis of pride-eliciting events in interviews generally confirm the results of the questionnaires and the scarce literature (Roseman et al., 1990; Roseman et al., 1996; Roseman, 2001) defining the appraisal pattern of the emotion as consistent with what one wanted, as wanting to get something pleasurable and as very much caused by oneself. With reference to the latter, while an appraisal of other-agency was found not to be significant in previous studies and the questionnaire data, there is evidence in the accounts of our subjects that others do have an effect on the emotion span, which in

some cases can be interpreted as social appraisal. We did not observe the verbalization of appraisals of unexpectedness or control potential as reported in the questionnaires, but this does not mean that the appraisal did not figure.

Next, we discuss our findings in the context of second language teaching and learning.



## Chapter 5

### Discussion and Conclusion

When in the Introduction to *Affect and Language Learning* Arnold and Brown define affect as “aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour” (Arnold & Brown, 1999: 1), they not only establish what their book is about but also how broadly linguists have interpreted the topic. For in the field of second/foreign language acquisition the affective domain has long been inhabited by qualities such as motivation, empathy, self-esteem, learning styles and learning strategies, inhibition and risk-taking, tolerance of ambiguity, willingness to communicate and extroversion. All these aspects are connected to cognition, and all these aspects combine to have some effect on how successfully language learners acquire an L2, whether in the traditional classroom, at a distance or aided by technological advances. Apart from anxiety, however, there seems to be very little emotion in affect, that is, emotion understood as a composite of cognitive appraisal, phenomenological experiences and actions. While we go about our daily routines feeling guilty, joyful, frustrated, angry, relieved, proud and a hundred other ways, the absence of research on emotions in the language classroom seems to imply that this is not where they occur, or if they do, that they are of modest significance. But surely language learners feel in the classroom just as they feel outside the classroom, which is why we proposed the first of our research questions: *What emotions do learners of*

*a foreign language experience when using an audiographic conferencing system for oral interaction with other learners and a tutor?* We made distance language learning our context of study, since it is the researcher's area of work, and chose users of a virtual environment as our subjects because their emotional stories are as untold as any other group of language learners', while computer applications occupy an increasingly important space in second language teaching and learning.

The analysis of questionnaire and interview data informs our first claim that distance language learners feel positive and negative emotions while using a synchronous audiographic conferencing tool for spoken practice. This coincides with the findings in Hurd (2007b), who studied the think-aloud protocols of Open University students working through a task on their own. Furthermore, subjects in our project report feeling positive emotions more often than negative emotions. Thus, although frustration is the most frequent, hope, joy, relief and pride follow, while disgust, contempt and sadness are the least felt.

In support of Roseman et al. (1990), who assert that some emotional experiences involve multiple emotions, we found that, with the exception of contempt, all emotions reported in the questionnaires correlated with at least one other, forming positive and negative groups such as pride, joy, hope and affection towards someone, or frustration occurring together with regret, distress with fear et cetera. When positive and negative emotions correlated significantly, we noted that the pattern responded to a transition between emotions felt before, during and after an online tutorial.

We also observed that female learners claimed to experience sadness, guilt, affection towards someone and joy more generally than their male counterparts, which concurs with the results of many studies on gender differences in emotion. The diverse emotional lives of men and women in western industrial societies are supported by social and cultural stereotypes; women are more likely than men to have a domestic and nurturing role; the emotions that help them perform this role are not about assertiveness and the display of power, but about vulnerability and maintaining harmony in social relations (Fischer et al., 2004). We established in the review of the literature that online environments can successfully provide a (virtual) social space where distance language learners feel less isolated and develop communities based on rapport, collaboration on learning and a feeling of responsibility for each other (Shield, 2000; Rosell-Aguilar, 2006a). Task designers mean to hand control over to the learners (Hampel, 2006; Hampel & Hauck 2006; Hampel, 2007) and cases where tutors have involuntarily gazumped the lesson have been blamed on their inexperience of working in a medium with limited visual cues (de los Arcos & Arnedillo Sánchez, 2006). Although competitive, online language learning is not a hostile enterprise, but democratic in the sense that all are entitled to take part, practise, improve and learn. Therefore, there is no room for aggression and little need for contempt or disgust, while it befits participants to sustain amicable social ties, which would explain why, given the fact that in our sample women also attend tutorials more than men, pleasant emotions do better than unpleasant emotions.

From the perspective of considering synchronous audiographic conferencing as a social setting and language learning as a social activity, our questionnaire data make very interesting reading as regards the relationship between others and the causes of emotion. For instance, nearly as many learners said that they disliked someone in their tutorial group as said that they never disliked anyone. Likewise, the group of those who felt affection towards someone was larger than those who declared never to have experienced affection in class.

But the technology itself also plays its part in the arousal of emotion. Lamy (2004) reminds us that interaction in virtual environments means competence both in the use of the language and its context of production, that is, the computer. The concept of new literacies requires that language learners become familiar with the electronic medium (Hampel, 2007), aware, among other aspects, of its affective demands (Hampel & Hauck, 2006). In conversation with our subjects we learn of their fear that the technology will not work; of their hope that other students will have fixed their sound levels so as to be heard clearly, and of their anger if they have not; of their frustration when the system constantly kicks them out; of their dislike of the tutor who waits too long for an answer instead of nominating a speaker; of their appreciation when another cares to repeat the instructions on how to save a screen and open it in a breakout room. Questionnaire data tell us that learners' ability to use the software partly accounts for their feelings of relief. The elicitation of emotion in the context of language learning in synchronous voice-based audiographic conferences seems to involve a consideration of both others and the

medium. To ascertain more accurately how this occurs, it is necessary to delve deeply into the origin of emotions.

In 2006 we carried out a small piece of research reported in de los Arcos et al. (2009) under very similar circumstances to this project: a group of distance language learners with the Open University were interviewed about their experiences of anxiety while taking part in tutorials in Lyceum to find out to what extent the technology triggered the emotion. We concluded that learners understood that they were operating in a medium with its own rules of interaction, and that being unable to fulfil what they believed was their role as language learners prompted the occurrence of negative emotions. This evidence of cognitive activity at the onset of anxiety pointed us in the direction of psychology and appraisal theory: appraisal theorists say that emotions are elicited by appraisals of events and situations in relation to a person's goals, needs or concerns, and that to each emotion corresponds a distinctive pattern of appraisal (Roseman & Smith, 2001). With this in mind we set out to study the appraisal patterns of regret and pride in accounts of events experienced by distance language learners while participating in online tutorials. Questionnaires based on Roseman et al. (1996) and Roseman (2001) provided us with an initial model. Any inconsistencies arising from its divergence from that found in the literature were then explored in interviews with volunteers, from which we also gained an insight into how appraisals were verbalized.

Before we proceed to discuss this, however, two comments are worth making. While more females than males submitted the questionnaire, the proportion of women willing to converse about emotional events with the researcher was even higher. Moreover,

although we collected marginally more accounts of pride than regret in the questionnaires, interviewees seemed more keen to tell us about regret than pride, as if they had more to say about the negative emotion, which gave us a sense that the interview was easier to conduct when the experience of regret rather than pride was the topic of conversation. As research indicates that one is more likely to talk emotion to someone of the same sex (Khor & Nash, 2007), this would be a probable explanation as to why more women than men volunteered for interview. But the fact that they expressed unpleasant emotions more readily than pleasant ones would contradict studies claiming that negative expression of emotion is inhibited by the presence of strangers (Buck et al., 1992), in this case the researcher. Furthermore, considering that the British as a nation are said to be poor emoters although good at expressing negative feelings (Khor & Nash, 2007), it does not come as a surprise that there were more instances of regret than pride, since nearly three quarters of our interviewees were British.

As regards the study of the appraisal patterns of regret and pride, in keeping with findings in the literature that an appraisal of situational state differentiates between positive and negative emotions (Roseman et al., 1990; Roseman et al., 1996; Roseman, 2001), we observed that regret-eliciting events in synchronous audiographic conferences were thought to be inconsistent with language learners' motives, and pride-eliciting events consistent with their motives. Whether to pass the course, to improve one's speaking skills, to keep in touch with peers, or to get help from the tutor to prepare an assignment, there is a purpose to distance language learners' attendance at online tutorials. Their perception of how the achievement of their goal is progressing

determines the appearance of emotion: if, for example, internet connections fail, if lack of confidence results in infrequent participation, if tutors do not prepare properly, that is, if something happens that hinders or stops language learners from reaching their intended goal, it is possible that they will experience unpleasant feelings of regret. On the contrary, if no glitches spoil interaction, if improved self-belief means enhanced class contributions, if praise is given where praise is deserved, that is, if all fits in as planned, the feeling will be of pride.

This idea strengthens our argument in de los Arcos et al. (2009) that distance language learners arrive at the online classroom with a set of beliefs and expectations concerning not only their own behaviour as language learners but also that of their peers and tutors, and the affordances of the electronic medium. Their emotions portray how they gauge their performance as online language learners, and the performance of peers and tutors, always working within the constraints and possibilities of the virtual environment. In this respect the appraisal that elicits the emotion is not only about believing that an event in class improves things or makes them worse, but also thinking of who or what is responsible. Language learners in this particular group thought that their pride was very much self-caused, but were not so definite about the cause of their regret: some accounts suggested self-agency (a self in comparison to others, as in “I do not have the confidence that others have” or “I did not prepare as much as others did”), while other stories blamed regret on peers and tutors, or even circumstances beyond one’s control, in which case the limitations of interaction in the virtual environment came to the fore (“In Lyceum I can not see others’ reactions”). When talk is of peers we see language learning

as a competitive activity, usually involving a stronger learner (the subject) expressing regret at others' lack of commitment to learning or poise to publicly speak the language. When talk is of tutors, the implication is that there are those still failing to develop the skills to effectively tutor in online settings as opposed to the face-to-face classroom (Hampel, 2006; 2007; 2009; Hampel & Stickler, 2007). The social and technological aspects of synchronous audiographic conferences used for language teaching and learning cannot be separated. Language learners interact with other learners and a tutor, with the computer, and with other learners and a tutor interacting with the computer. The elicitation of emotion in an appraisal of agency reflects the tripartite negotiations of self, others and the technology.

In consequence, we believe that applying Roseman's model of appraisal to emotion-eliciting events produced in electronic social environments used for language learning perhaps neglects the fact that, although studying at a distance, our subjects are not isolated when they attend tutorials. Thus, it is possible that interpreting the emotional reactions of others actually influences one's emotion. Manstead and Fischer (2001) explain that individuals seek out information on how others evaluate an emotional situation in order to make sense of it themselves, or because they want to keep their own reactions in check with the reactions of others to whom they are socially bound. Accordingly, we found evidence that on occasions our learners anticipate the reaction of their peers and/or tutor and take care that their own reaction does not upset the social structure needed for the tutorial to achieve its overall intended purpose: that all practise their oral skills. A student whose language level is higher than that of her peers'



regretfully chooses to limit her own participation so that she does not alienate other members of her tutorial group; another laments her tutor thinking that she may have nothing to say if she does not click on the hand-button to speak; somebody else comments on other learners' fear of speaking, is unhappy about doing pairwork with them in a breakout room, but feels it pays to be accommodating because all are entitled to learn.

Whereas normally this type of social appraisal has been studied in situations where others are physically present and emotions are mainly communicated through facial behaviour, we discover that it also occurs in a virtual environment where users' visual knowledge of each other is reduced to a name on the screen, and where technology complicates the expression of emotion. Not having a direct line into other people's feelings combined with restricted options to display one's own makes the experience of emotion a more private matter. This is not to deny either social appraisal or appraisal of other-agency but to imply that the emotion-eliciting event is open to many interpretations and fewer chances to establish the appropriateness of one's emotional response.

How we act in response to an emotional event is measured by an appraisal of control potential, that is to say, the perception of our ability to control or do something about it (Roseman et al., 1990; Roseman et al., 1996; Roseman, 2001). When our group of learners experience pride, it is mostly to attain recognition of their linguistic ability (emotivation, the goal one wants to attain when experiencing the emotion); an event eliciting pride is also pleasurable, something they want to get more of; it motivates them to study hard

because they want it to happen again. Hence too its appraisal of high control potential: they believe that it is in their hands to put in the effort towards improving their language skills and thus feel proud anew. For the experience of regret, however, there were as many learners in our sample who thought that there was nothing they could do about the event as there were who thought that they could control it. We understand that those who believe that they can control it, do so because they want to correct the situation (emotivation). For example, in a scenario where a learner regrets not having prepared for a tutorial and sees her chances of oral practice go by, she will want to do things differently next time and so will at least intend to spend longer over books and materials during the weeks ahead of the following tutorial. What is interesting though, is that we have learners in exactly the same scenario for whom the experience of regret does not merit any action: the knowledge exists that it does not help the achievement of their goal, but they do not feel the motivation to act by applying themselves to their studies. Instead we see a belief that they can cope well with a situation which at this particular moment is unwelcome but not really threatening. These are learners with a heightened sense of self-awareness – “I know what I am doing”, “It is the way I am”, “I know I’ll be fine in the end”.

Our observation that a negative emotion either generates language learning behaviour or does not depending on how confident learners are that they will successfully reach their objective leads us to believe that it is not always the negative emotion that impedes language acquisition (Arnold, 1999), but how learners act upon their experience of it. In relation to this, Schumann’s interest in learners’ appraisal of a language learning

situation rests on the notion that appraisals determine motivation. According to him, appraisals lead to action patterns that enhance or inhibit language acquisition (Schumann, 1997), therefore to be proficient in a second language, what is needed is enough positive appraisal to sustain learning over an extended period of time (Schumann & Wood, 2004). It is our impression that Schumann's argument also serves to support the general perception that positive emotions in language learning are to be fostered and negative discouraged. Our proposal, however, is that language acquisition does not mean exclusively positive appraisal: negative emotions are appraised as inconsistent with learners' motives but still have the potential to produce language learning actions. What counts then is not whether language learners have positive or negative feelings, but that they are aware of where these feelings originate, an awareness which includes knowledge of self, others and the learning context. Only then will they be better equipped to cope with any emotional event and thus decide on which action to take.

In a way we are putting forward that (distance) language learners and tutors are helped to become emotionally intelligent. Salovey and Mayer (1990: 189) define emotional intelligence (EI) as "a type of social intelligence which involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions". In a two-year survey of a large number of multilingual adults, Dewaele et al. (2008) discovered that individuals with higher than average trait EI – that is, EI as personality trait, measured through self-report questionnaires as opposed to EI as cognitive ability, measured through maximum-

performance tests (Petrides et al., 2004) – were less likely to suffer from communicative anxiety and foreign language anxiety. Their study suggests that developing language learners' emotional intelligence is of interest to all those involved in second language acquisition, practitioners and researchers alike. Without denying that second language acquisition is by nature a highly anxiety-provoking enterprise (Dörnyei, 2009b), it appears to us that all emotions, positive and negative, warrant attention.

In conclusion, as emotions mediate between what is personally important and the outer world, there is no reason to believe that the (online) language classroom is a place where emotions do not happen; they do of course, good and bad, because for the person who wants to learn a language, the language classroom is part of the outer world. As individuals we see ourselves also as individual feelers, and indeed we respond emotionally in different ways to different situations. However, we have seen that there are events in the (online) language classroom that are not unique, but repeat themselves time and time again with different tutorial groups, different tutors, different students; there are emotion-eliciting events that are common to language acquisition scenarios. When one of these events is appraised by two learners in the same way, they both feel the same; the emotion is their response to cope with the situation. Because this response ties in with particular language learning actions, it is the awareness of the origin of the emotion that needs to be developed in language learners.

Although in our opinion in Roseman's model of appraisal the social aspect of emotion deserves more consideration, there is no doubt that appraisal theory provides an

interesting path into our understanding of what causes emotions. As appraisal theorists' see emotion as a construct of cognitive appraisal, emotional response and motivated action tendencies, their thoughts run parallel with current individual differences (ID) literature on the continuous and dynamic interaction between cognition, affect, motivation, and the environment (Dörnyei, 2009b).

In adopting an inter-disciplinary approach, we have demonstrated that second language acquisition not only can benefit from crossing over to psychology, but that it is paramount that it does so, specially in matters concerning the study of emotion.

Where do we go from here? We know that the biggest limitation of the present project has been the small number of learners who shared their emotional stories with us; our ability to generalize the findings to all distance language learners attending online tutorials in an audiographic conferencing system is obviously restricted. Besides, we only asked about regret and pride, and we did not hear from all parties implicated in each of the events. We also think that future investigations into the appraisal patterns of emotions will benefit from direct observation of language tutorials, and if possible, the immediate collection of learners' thoughts and feelings after the sessions. A lot of questions remain unanswered: do language learners in the traditional face-to-face classroom feel the same as their online counterparts? When emotions occur together, as is often the case of frustration and regret, is there also a sequence of appraisal that intensifies the emotion? How does appraisal of an event eliciting emotion change over time? How does it change as new information about an event is sought? Will the appraisal patterns of regret and pride, as we have seen them in audiographic

conferences, vary when the software allows for the transmission of facial expressions?

We feel, however, that in championing the study of appraisals as elicitors of emotion in the context of online distance language learning we have succeeded in opening a door into the research of emotions in language learning and teaching in general.

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## Appendix 1

### Emotions Questionnaire

As an Open University student you are invited to take part in this survey. The survey is part of a research project that investigates emotions in distance language learning. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential and will not be seen by any tutorial staff. Answering, or not answering, this questionnaire has no effect on your evaluation or grading. Please note that any information you enter in this form will be used for research purposes only and your identity will, under no circumstances, be disclosed. Filling the questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes, and every returned form is valuable to us.

We hope that you can find the time to participate in this survey.

1. What OU language course(s) did you do last year?

2. How would you rate your abilities in terms of using Lyceum?  
(Please, tick one box only)

Very confident ☐ Confident ☐ Not so confident ☐ Little or no confidence ☐

3. In your language course(s), how often did you attend tutorials? If you used Lyceum in more than one course, please think of only one.  
(Please, tick one box only)

Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Mostly ☐ Always ☐

4. While taking part in a Lyceum tutorial, how often did you feel these emotions?  
(Please tick one box only in each row)

	Never	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
Surprise				
Anger				
Relief				
Dislike towards someone				
Pride				
Fear				
Sadness				
Distress				
Affection towards someone				
Disgust				
Frustration				
Regret				
Contempt				
Joy				
Guilt				
Shame				
Hope				

5. Take a few minutes to recall a time when you felt **regret** in connection with a tutorial in Lyceum. Describe what happened in your own words. You don't need to go into detail, just a few words to help you relive the situation.

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6. What was it in the situation you just described that directly caused you to feel **regret**?

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Answer the questions that follow with respect to this event. Tick only one box in each row on a scale of 1 to 4.

	My regret was caused by:	1	2	3	4	
7	The event being expected					The event being unexpected
8	Believing that the event improved things					Believing that the event made things worse
9	Wanting to get or keep something pleasurable					Wanting to get rid of or avoid something painful
10	Being certain about the consequences of the event					Being uncertain about the consequences of the event
11	Thinking that the event was not at all caused by me					Thinking that the event was very much caused by me
12	Thinking that the event was not at all caused by someone else					Thinking that the event was very much caused by someone else
13	Thinking that the event was not at all caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control					Thinking that the event was very much caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control
14	Thinking that there was something I could do about the event					Thinking there was nothing I could do about the event
15	Believing that the event helped or hindered my needs, plans or goals.					Believing that the event was positive or negative independent of my evaluation.

16. Now take a few minutes to recall a time when you felt **pride** in connection with a tutorial in Lyceum. Describe what happened in your own words. You don't need to go into detail, just a few words to help you relive the situation.

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17. What was it in the situation you just described that directly caused you to feel **pride**?

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Answer the questions that follow with respect to this event. Tick only one box in each row on a scale of 1 to 4.

	My pride was caused by:	1	2	3	4	
18	The event being expected					The event being unexpected
19	Believing that the event improved things					Believing that the event made things worse
20	Wanting to get or keep something pleasurable					Wanting to get rid of or avoid something painful
21	Being certain about the consequences of the event					Being uncertain about the consequences of the event
22	Thinking that the event was not at all caused by me					Thinking that the event was very much caused by me
23	Thinking that the event was not at all caused by someone else					Thinking that the event was very much caused by someone else
24	Thinking that the event was not at all caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control					Thinking that the event was very much caused by circumstances beyond anyone's control
25	Thinking that there was something I could do about the event					Thinking there was nothing I could do about the event
26	Believing that the event helped or hindered my needs, plans or goals.					Believing that the event was positive or negative independent of my evaluation.

27. What is your nationality? \_\_\_\_\_

28. What is your first language? \_\_\_\_\_

29. Would you be willing to be contacted by the researchers to explore some of these questions further?    Yes ☐    No ☐

30. If you answered Yes, please give details of how you prefer to be contacted:

Thank you very much for participating in this survey. If you have any queries about the questionnaire, please email [b.delosarcos@open.ac.uk](mailto:b.delosarcos@open.ac.uk)

## Appendix 2

### Information Letter

Dear participant,

I am a research student at the Open University studying the role of emotions in distance online language learning. The specific aims of my dissertation project are:

- (1) to find out what emotions language students experience in online tutorials,
- (2) to learn how these emotions are elicited, and
- (3) to explore what beliefs and actions are associated with these emotions.

Your participation in this research project is very much appreciated. Initially you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about the emotions you have felt when attending tutorials in Lyceum, the OU's audiographic conferencing system. This is an online questionnaire which should take you around 20 minutes to complete. If you are interested in being contacted for further research, you will be interviewed, either in person, via Lyceum or phone, by the researcher. You will be asked to recall a time when you felt a particular emotion, and answer questions about what you thought, felt like doing and did at the time. The interview should last approximately 30 minutes, and will be recorded.

Please be assured that you can withdraw from the project at any time and no adverse consequences will result from this. The results of any research project involving Open University students constitute personal data under the Data Protection Act. They will be kept secure and not released to any third party. The data will be destroyed a year after the project is completed (estimated September 09) or immediately in case of withdrawal. Your anonymity and confidentiality will be protected at all times.

For further information, please do not hesitate to contact:

Beatriz de los Arcos  
Faculty of Education and Language Studies  
The Open University

Tel: 01908 654396  
b.delosarcos@open.ac.uk

If you wish to talk to somebody else about the research, please contact:

Prof. James A. Coleman  
Faculty of Education and Language Studies  
The Open University

Tel: 01908 659909  
j.a.coleman@open.ac.uk

## Appendix 3

### Informed Consent Form for Project Participants

Project Title: The role of emotions in distance online language learning

I agree to take part in the above Open University research project. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the information letter, which I may keep for my records. I understand that agreeing to take part means that I am willing to:

- be interviewed by the researcher
- allow the interview to be recorded

This information will be held and processed for educational or research purposes only, including publication.

I understand that any information I provide is confidential, and that no information that could lead to the identification of any individual will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party. No identifiable personal data will be published. The identifiable data will not be shared with any other organization.

I agree to The Open University recording and processing this information about me. I understand that this information will be used only for the purposes set out in this statement and my consent is conditional on the University complying with its duties and obligations under the Data Protection Act 1998.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage of the project without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

## Appendix 4

### Means per emotion

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Surprise	56	1	3	1.77	.539
Anger	57	1	3	1.49	.571
Relief	56	1	4	1.91	.695
Dislike towards someone	57	1	3	1.53	.601
Pride	57	1	3	1.77	.598
Fear	56	1	4	1.70	.807
Sadness	56	1	3	1.30	.502
Distress	55	1	4	1.62	.733
Affection towards someone	54	1	3	1.67	.583
Disgust	56	1	3	1.14	.401
Frustration	55	1	4	2.24	.719
Regret	55	1	3	1.56	.570
Contempt	57	1	3	1.21	.453
Joy	57	1	3	1.86	.581
Guilt	55	1	3	1.33	.511
Shame	57	1	4	1.49	.630
Hope	57	1	3	2.09	.576

(On a 4-point Likert scale ranging from Never=1 to Always= 4)

**Appendix 5 Differences in emotion by gender**

Gender			Sadness			Affection towards someone			Joy			Guilt		
			Never	Sometimes	Mostly	Never	Sometimes	Mostly	Never	Sometimes	Mostly	Never	Sometimes	Mostly
Female	Count		21	13	0	8	23	1	3	28	4	21	13	0
	% of Total		38.2%	23.6%	0%	15.1%	43.4%	1.9%	5.4%	50.0%	7.1%	38.9%	24.1%	.0%
Male	Count		18	2	1	13	6	2	10	9	2	17	2	1
	% of Total		32.7%	3.6%	1.8%	24.5%	11.3%	3.8%	17.9%	16.1%	3.6%	31.5%	3.7%	1.9%
Total	Count		39	15	1	21	29	3	13	37	6	38	15	1
	% of Total		70.9%	27.3%	1.8%	39.6%	54.7%	5.7%	23.2%	66.1%	10.7%	70.4%	27.8%	1.9%

	Sadness			Affection towards someone			Joy			Guilt		
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.593	2	.037	9.621	2	.008	11.405	2	.003	6.280	2	.043
Cramer's V	.346			.426			.451			.341		
N of Valid Cases	55			53			56			54		



## Appendix 6 Correlations

		abi	sur	ang	rel	dis	pri	fea	sad	dist	aff	disg	frus	reg	joy	gui	sha	hop
abi	Pearson				.409**			.292*		.333*								
	Sig. (2-t)				.002			.031		.014								
	N				55			55		54								
sur	Pearson				.575**		.296*	.477**		.447**				.320*		.438**		.264*
	Sig. (2-t)				.000		.027	.000		.001				.019		.001		.050
	N				55		56	55		54				54		54		56
ang	Pearson					.326*			.412**									
	Sig. (2-t)					.013			.002									
	N					57			56									
rel	Pearson	.409**	.575**				.297*	.477**		.309*					.370**	.439**	.265*	.426**
	Sig. (2-t)	.002	.000				.026	.000		.023					.005	.001	.048	.001
	N	55	55				56	55		54					56	54	56	56
dis	Pearson			.326*					.415**									
	Sig. (2-t)			.013					.001									
	N			57					56									
pri	Pearson		.296*		.297*						.508**				.575**			.267*
	Sig. (2-t)		.027		.026						.000				.000			.045
	N		56		56						54				57			57
fea	Pearson	.292*	.477**		.477**					.648**			.341*			.538**	.481**	
	Sig. (2-t)	.031	.000		.000					.000			.012			.000	.000	
	N	55	55		55					54			54			54	56	
sad	Pearson			.412**		.415**						.320*					.430**	
	Sig. (2-t)			.002		.001						.017					.001	
	N			56		56						55					56	
dist	Pearson	.333*	.447**		.309*			.648**					.331*	.400**		.326*	.450**	
	Sig. (2-t)	.014	.001		.023			.000					.015	.003		.017	.001	
	N	54	54		54			54					53	53		53	55	

# Appendices

		abi	sur	ang	rel	dis	pri	fea	sad	dist	aff	disg	frus	reg	joy	gui	sha	hop
aff	Pearson						.508**								.480**			
	Sig. (2-t)						.000								.000			
	N						54								54			
disg	Pearson								.320*				.336*	.369**			.440**	
	Sig. (2-t)								.017				.013	.006			.001	
	N								55				54	54			56	
fru	Pearson							.341*		.331*		.336*		.475**	-.371**			
	Sig. (2-t)							.012		.015		.013		.000	.005			
	N							54		53		54		54	55			
reg	Pearson		.320*							.400**		.369**	.475**			.378**	.267*	
	Sig. (2-t)		.019							.003		.006	.000			.005	.049	
	N		54							53		54	54			53	55	
joy	Pearson				.370**		.575**				.480**		-.371**					.465**
	Sig. (2-t)				.005		.000				.000		.005					.000
	N				56		57				54		55					57
gui	Pearson		.438**		.439**			.538**		.326*				.378**			.390**	
	Sig. (2-t)		.001		.001			.000		.017				.005			.003	
	N		54		54			54		53				53			55	
sha	Pearson				.265*			.481**	.430**	.450**		.440**		.267*		.390**		
	Sig. (2-t)				.048			.000	.001	.001		.001		.049		.003		
	N				56			56	56	55		56		55		55		
hop	Pearson		.264*		.426**		.267*								.465**			
	Sig. (2-t)		.050		.001*		.045								.000			
	N		56		56		57								57			

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

abi= ability; sur= surprise; ang= anger; rel= relief; dis= dislike towards someone; pri= pride; fea= fear; sad= sadness; dist= distress; aff= affection towards someone; disg= disgust; fru= frustration; reg= regret; joy= joy; gui= guilt; sha= shame; hop= hope.

## Appendix 7 Table of appraisal frequencies for regret

<b>Unexpectedness</b>					
<i>The event being expected (1) to The event being unexpected (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 3.17	Frequency	Percent	M= 3.31	Frequency	Percent
1	1	5.6	1	2	12.5
2	5	27.8	2	2	12.5
3	2	11.1	3	1	6.3
4	10	55.6	4	11	68.8
<b>Situational state</b>					
<i>Believing that the event improved things (1) to Believing that the event made things worse (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=17			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 2.76	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.94	Frequency	Percent
1	3	17.6	1	2	12.5
2	4	23.5	2	3	18.8
3	4	23.5	3	5	31.3
4	6	35.3	4	6	37.5
<b>Motivational state</b>					
<i>Wanting to get or keep something pleasurable (1) to Wanting to get rid of or avoid something painful (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 2.22	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.75	Frequency	Percent
1	5	27.8	1	2	12.5
2	7	38.9	2	5	31.3
3	3	16.7	3	4	25.0
4	3	16.7	4	5	31.3
<b>Probability</b>					
<i>Being certain about the consequences of the event (1) to Being uncertain about the consequences of the event (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=17			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 2.76	Frequency	Percent	M= 3.19	Frequency	Percent
1	3	17.6	1	1	6.3
2	5	29.4	2	3	18.8
3	2	11.8	3	4	25.0
4	7	41.2	4	8	50.0
<b>Agency Self</b>					
<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused by me (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by me (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=17			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 2.76	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.38	Frequency	Percent
1	6	35.3	1	6	37.5
2	1	5.9	2	3	18.8
3	1	5.9	3	2	12.5
4	9	52.9	4	5	31.3

**Agency Other**

*Thinking that the event was not at all caused by someone else (1) to  
Thinking that the event was very much caused by someone else (4)*

Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 1.94	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.56	Frequency	Percent
1	10	55.6	1	4	25.0
2	1	5.6	2	4	25.0
3	5	27.8	3	3	18.8
4	2	11.1	4	5	31.3

**Agency Circumstances**

*Thinking that the event was not at all caused beyond anyone's control (1) to  
Thinking that the event was very much caused beyond anyone's control (4)*

Experience 1 N=16			Experience 2 N=15		
M= 2.19	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.60	Frequency	Percent
1	7	43.8	1	4	26.7
2	3	18.8	2	3	20.0
3	2	12.5	3	3	20.0
4	4	25.0	4	5	33.3

**Control potential**

*Thinking that there was something I could do about the event (1) to  
Thinking that there was nothing I could do about the event (4)*

Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 2.50	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.19	Frequency	Percent
1	8	44.4	1	7	43.8
2	3	16.7	2	3	18.8
3	0	0	3	2	12.5
4	7	38.9	4	4	25.0

**Problem type**

*The event helped or hindered my needs, plans or goals (1) to  
The event was positive or negative independent of my evaluation (4)*

Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=16		
M= 2.00	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.00	Frequency	Percent
1	10	55.6	1	7	43.8
2	2	11.1	2	5	31.3
3	2	11.1	3	1	6.3
4	4	22.2	4	3	18.8

## Appendix 8 Table of appraisal frequencies for pride

<b>Unexpectedness</b>					
<i>The event being expected (1) to The event being unexpected (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=18		
M= 2.61	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.72	Frequency	Percent
1	2	11.1	1	5	27.8
2	6	33.3	2	1	5.6
3	7	38.9	3	6	33.3
4	3	16.7	4	6	33.3
<b>Situational state</b>					
<i>Believing that the event improved things (1) to Believing that the event made things worse (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=18		
M= 1.56	Frequency	Percent	M= 1.28	Frequency	Percent
1	10	55.6	1	13	72.2
2	7	38.9	2	5	27.8
3	0	0	3	0	0
4	1	5.6	4	0	0
<b>Motivational state</b>					
<i>Wanting to get or keep something pleasurable (1) to Wanting to get rid of or avoid something painful (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=18		
M= 1.61	Frequency	Percent	M= 1.33	Frequency	Percent
1	9	50.0	1	13	72.2
2	7	38.9	2	4	22.2
3	2	11.1	3	1	5.6
4	0	0	4	0	0
<b>Probability</b>					
<i>Being certain about the consequences of the event (1) to Being uncertain about the consequences of the event (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=17			Experience 2 N=18		
M= 1.76	Frequency	Percent	M= 1.72	Frequency	Percent
1	7	41.2	1	8	44.4
2	8	47.1	2	8	44.4
3	1	5.9	3	1	5.6
4	1	5.9	4	1	5.6
<b>Agency Self</b>					
<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused by me (1) to Thinking that the event was very much caused by me (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=18		
M= 3.11	Frequency	Percent	M= 3.71	Frequency	Percent
1	1	5.6	1	0	0
2	4	22.2	2	1	5.6
3	5	27.8	3	3	16.7
4	8	44.4	4	13	72.2

<b>Agency Other</b>					
<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused by someone else (1) to</i>					
<i>Thinking that the event was very much caused by someone else (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=18		
M= 2.00	Frequency	Percent	M= 2.06	Frequency	Percent
	1	4		1	7
	2	11		2	5
	3	2		3	4
	4	1		4	2
		22.2			38.9
		61.1			27.8
		11.1			22.2
		5.6			11.1
<b>Agency Circumstances</b>					
<i>Thinking that the event was not at all caused beyond anyone's control (1) to</i>					
<i>Thinking that the event was very much caused beyond anyone's control (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=17		
M= 1.67	Frequency	Percent	M= 1.71	Frequency	Percent
	1	8		1	9
	2	8		2	5
	3	2		3	2
	4	0		4	1
		44.4			52.9
		44.4			29.4
		11.1			11.8
		0			5.9
<b>Control potential</b>					
<i>Thinking that there was something I could do about the event (1) to</i>					
<i>Thinking that there was nothing I could do about the event (4)</i>					
Experience 1 N=18			Experience 2 N=18		
M= 1.44	Frequency	Percent	M= 1.28	Frequency	Percent
	1	11		1	13
	2	6		2	5
	3	1		3	0
	4	0		4	0
		61.1			72.2
		33.3			27.8
		5.6			0
		0			0